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8 UNCERTAINTIES IN CLIMATE CHANGE ATTRIBUTION

Chapter summary

“Attribution” refers to determining cause regarding some aspect of climate change, specifically with reference to anthropogenic activity. There is an ongoing scientific debate around attribution methods, particularly regarding extreme weather events. Attribution is made difficult by high natural variability, the relatively small expected anthropogenic signal, lack of high-quality data, and reliance on deficient climate models. The IPCC has long cautioned that methods to establish causality in climate science are inherently uncertain and ultimately depend on expert judgement.

Substantive criticism of the main IPCC assessments of the role of CO₂ in recent warming focus on inadequate assessment of natural climate variability, uncertainties in measurement of solar variability and aerosol forcing, and problems in the statistical methods used for attribution.

The IPCC does not in general make attribution claims for most climate impact drivers related to extreme events. Statements related to statistics of global extremes (e.g. event probability or return times, magnitude and frequency) are not generally considered accurate owing to data limitations and are made with low confidence. Attribution of individual extreme weather events is challenging due to their rarity. Conflicting claims about the causes of the 2021 Western North America Heatwave illustrate the perils of hasty attribution claims about individual extreme events.

8.1 Introduction

The Intergovernmental Panel on Climate Change (IPCC) distinguishes between detection of climate change and attribution of its cause. As defined by the IPCC AR6 WGI Glossary (IPCC, 2025):

Detection: “Detection of change is defined as the process of demonstrating that climate or a system affected by climate has changed in some defined statistical sense, without providing a reason for that change. An identified change is detected in observations if its likelihood of occurrence by chance due to internal variability alone is determined to be small, for example, <10%.”

Attribution: “Attribution is defined as the process of evaluating the relative contributions of multiple causal factors to a change or event with a formal assessment of confidence.”

Both steps rely on statistical analysis. Detection focuses on whether changes are significant enough to stand out from random variation regardless of cause. Attribution involves comparison of observed events to model-generated counterfactuals. Since experimentation on the climate is not possible, attribution requires statistical inference to assess how much human activities, such as GHG emissions, versus natural factors, like volcanic eruptions, contribute to observed changes. Attribution methods assume all external and internal drivers of the system are known and represented.

There are ongoing scientific debates around attribution methods, especially those for attributing extreme weather events to climate change. The IPCC has long cautioned that methods to establish causality in climate science are inherently uncertain and ultimately depend on expert judgement. AR4 Working Group I (Hegerl et al., 2007) explained it as follows:

‘Attribution’ of causes of climate change is the process of establishing the most likely causes for the detected change with some defined level of confidence... unequivocal attribution would require controlled experimentation with the climate system. Since that is not possible, in practice attribution of anthropogenic climate change is understood to mean demonstration that a detected change is ‘consistent with the estimated responses to the given combination of anthropogenic and natural forcing’ and ‘not consistent with alternative, physically plausible explanations of recent climate change that exclude important elements of the given combination of forcings’ (IPCC, 2001)... The approaches used in detection and attribution research described above cannot fully account for all uncertainties, and thus ultimately expert judgement is required to give a calibrated assessment of whether a specific cause is responsible for a given climate change.

AR5 Working Group II (Cramer et al., 2014) makes the following statement:

“Two broad challenges to the detection and attribution of climate change impacts relate to observations and process understanding. On the observational side, high-quality, long-term data relating to natural and human systems and the multiple factors affecting them are rare. In addition, the detection and attribution of climate change impacts requires an understanding of the processes by which climate change, in conjunction with other factors, may affect the system in question.”

Because of the complexity of the causal chains in the climate system, investigation of these relationships is exceptionally challenging.

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8.2 Attribution methods

The IPCC employs several attribution methods to assess the causes of observed climate changes, distinguishing between natural and human-induced factors. Below is a concise description of the key methods that have been used by the IPCC.

Optimal Fingerprinting uses linear regression to explain variations in observed climate data as a weighted sum of climate model simulations run with and without anthropogenic forcings. The data used in the regression model are weighted to try to minimize the influence of random noise and the estimation method is chosen to take account of climate model error.

Time Series Analysis exploits statistical differences between anthropogenic forcing and natural variability to see which dominates observed temperatures, and also uses variations in the timing of changes to determine if causal dependence across data series can be inferred.

Process-Based Attribution focuses on understanding the physical mechanisms behind observed changes. This approach combines observations, climate models, and theoretical understanding to attribute changes in specific processes to forcings. This approach is often used for regional climate phenomena, such as monsoon changes or polar amplification

Extreme Event Attribution assesses the role of human influence in the likelihood of occurrence or intensity of extreme weather events (e.g. heat waves, droughts). Methods include:

- Probabilistic Event Attribution uses large ensembles of climate model simulations to compare observed events to model-generated counterfactuals

- Storyline Approach examines the physical processes driving an event and evaluates how anthropogenic forcings might have modified those processes

8.3 Attribution of global warming

Attribution statements for global warming in the three most recent IPCC Assessment reports are:

AR4: “Most of the observed increase in global average temperatures since the mid-20th century is *very likely* due to the observed increase in anthropogenic greenhouse gas concentrations.” (IPCC, 2007)

AR5: “It is *extremely likely* that more than half of the observed increase in global average surface temperature from 1951 to 2010 was caused by the anthropogenic increase in greenhouse gas concentrations and other anthropogenic forcings together. The best estimate of the human-induced contribution to warming is similar to the observed warming over this period.” (IPCC, 2013)

AR6: “The *likely* range of total human-caused global surface temperature increase from 1850–1900 to 2010–2019 is 0.8°C to 1.3°C, with a best estimate of 1.07°C. It is *likely* that well-mixed GHGs contributed a warming of 1.0°C to 2.0°C, other human drivers (principally aerosols) contributed a cooling of 0.0°C to 0.8°C, natural drivers changed global surface temperature by –0.1°C to +0.1°C, and internal variability changed it by –0.2°C to +0.2°C. It is *very likely* that well-mixed GHGs were the main driver of tropospheric warming since 1979.” (IPCC, 2021)

The AR4 and AR5 attribution statements reference the warming since the mid-20th century, the period when greenhouse gas emissions began rapidly increasing. The words “most” and “more than half” are deliberately imprecise, potentially ranging from 51 to 99% of the warming – presumably this imprecision is to account for structural uncertainties such as natural internal variability. The confidence level increases from *very likely* to *extremely likely* from AR4 to AR5. The structure of the attribution statement in the AR6 is fundamentally different, referencing the warming to the period 1850–1900. The AR6 attribution statement is more precise numerically, but with a lower level of confidence at “likely” – the AR6 attributes essentially all the warming to increases in greenhouse gases. The most confident statement from the AR6 relates to the tropospheric warming since 1979, using the words “main driver” and “*very likely*.”

There are three areas of substantive criticism of the IPCC’s assessment of the causes of the recent warming: inadequate assessment of natural climate variability, inappropriate statistical methods, and substantial discrepancies between models and observations. The last is discussed in Chapter 6, while this chapter discusses the first two factors. All of these criticisms are relevant to the IPCC’s policy-informing attribution of the recent warming, which also underpins extreme event attribution

8.3.1 Natural climate variability

IPCC AR6 states that natural external drivers since 1850–1900 have changed global surface temperature by –0.1°C to +0.1°C, and internal variability has changed it by –0.2°C to +0.2°C – on average having essentially no net impact on the warming since 1850–1900. As discussed below, this minimal contribution of natural variability has been disputed by several publications that question the magnitudes of solar variability and internal variability from large-scale ocean circulation.

Solar variability

IPCC AR5 concluded that the best estimate of radiative forcing due to Total Solar Irradiance (TSI) changes over the period 1750–2011 was very small (0.05 W/m^2 , Myrhe et al., 2014). IPCC AR6 acknowledges a much larger range of estimates of changes in TSI over the last several centuries, stating that the TSI between the Maunder Minimum (1645–1715) and the second half of the twentieth century increased by $0.7\text{--}2.7 \text{ W/m}^2$, a range that includes both low and high variability TSI data sets (Gulev, 2021). However, the recommended forcing dataset for the CMIP6 climate model simulations used in AR6 for attribution studies averages two data sets with low solar variability (Matthes, 2017).

While AR6 shows a substantially greater solar impact than does AR5, the overall impact on the climate was still assessed to be small compared to anthropogenic forcing of climate change. However, the impact of solar variations on the climate is uncertain and subject to substantial debate – something that is not evident from the IPCC assessment reports (Lockwood, 2012; Connolly et al., 2021).

The change of TSI over time remains a challenging problem. Since 1978, there have been direct measurements of TSI from satellites. However, the data exhibits non-negligible inconsistencies, and interpreting any multi-decadal trends in TSI requires comparisons of observations from overlapping satellites. There are several rival composite TSI datasets, disagreeing as to whether TSI increased or decreased during the period 1986–96 (the ACRIM gap; see Chapter 4). Further, the satellite record of TSI is used to calibrate proxy models, whereby past solar variations are inferred from sunspots and cosmogenic isotope measurements (Velasco Herrera et al., 2015).

There is substantial evidence for high solar activity in the second half of the 20th century (starting in 1959) and extending into the 1990's, before a decline in the early 21st century; this period is often termed the “Modern Maximum.” (Chatzistergos et al., 2023; Solanki et al., 2004; Usoskin et al., 2007). However, some scientists have concluded that it is not possible to be confident of any multi-decadal trend in TSI (Schmutz, 2021).

This uncertainty causes some reconstructions of TSI from 1750 to have low variability (implying a very low impact of solar variations on global mean surface temperature) whereas datasets with high TSI variability can explain more than 70% percent of the temperature variability since preindustrial times (Scafetta, 2013; Stefani, 2021). The choice of TSI satellite record used in an analysis can therefore substantially influence how much climate change is attributed to human versus natural forcings.

There is growing evidence that other aspects of solar variability, which are referred to as solar indirect effects, either amplify TSI forcing or are independent of TSI forcing. Scafetta et al. (2023) suggests that ~80% of solar influence on climate may stem from non-TSI mechanisms. There are numerous candidate processes, including solar ultraviolet changes; energetic particle precipitation; atmospheric-electric-field effect on cloud cover; cloud changes produced by solar-modulated galactic cosmic rays; large relative changes in the magnetic field; and the strength of the solar wind. Such solar indirect effects are not included in climate models, although indirect methods of estimating their impacts suggest they are significant. However, claims of non-TSI mechanisms influencing climate are uncertain and debated.

Natural variability of large-scale ocean circulations

Variations in global mean surface temperature are linked to recurrent large-scale variations in ocean circulation patterns, including the Atlantic Multidecadal Oscillation (AMO), the Pacific Decadal Oscillation (PDO) and the El Niño-Southern Oscillation (ENSO). These circulations influence ocean heat uptake and heat distribution, and also influence atmospheric circulation patterns and cloud distributions. There is some debate as to whether these variations are strictly internal to the climate system, or whether this variability can have a solar/astronomical origin or can be influenced by large volcanic eruptions.

While climate models simulate the large-scale ocean circulations and internal climate variability, most models show have too little amplitude compared to observations at multi-decadal frequencies and phasing out-of-sync with the observed climate (Kravtsov et al. 2024). Averaging multiple simulations effectively averages out the internal variations, leaving only the forced climate variability (e.g., CO₂ forcing). With most of the modern warming beginning in the late 1970's, the recent 50-year warming is on the same time scale as the multi-decadal oscillations of the AMO and PDO.

Here are summary statements from the IPCC AR5 and AR6 reports:

“Decadal variability in the Pacific, associated with the PDO or IPO [Interdecadal Pacific Oscillation], contributes significantly to regional and global temperature trends, but the relative contributions of internal variability and external forcing are difficult to disentangle in CMIP5 simulations.” (IPCC, 2013)

“Since AR5, there has been increased understanding of the role of internal variability, such as ENSO, PDO, and AMO, in modulating regional climate trends. However, limitations in simulating the exact timing and amplitude of these modes in CMIP6 models contribute to uncertainties in attributing observed changes to anthropogenic forcing (*high confidence*).” (IPCC, 2021)

The amplitude of the peak-to-trough impact of the multi-decadal oscillations on global temperatures has been assessed by the IPCC AR6: “The likely range of change due to internal variability is -0.2°C to +0.2°C (IPCC, 2021).” This implies a trough-to-peak change of 0.4°C. Over many centuries, any global temperature changes from the troughs and peaks will cancel out, with little to no net impact.

However, with a nominal timescale of 60-80 years for oscillations such as the AMO and PDO, the timing of the peaks and troughs can be confused with the secular trend. This becomes very relevant for attributing the warming for the past 50 years, when most of the recent warming has occurred. Even if climate models have the correct amplitude of the multidecadal oscillations, the timing of the peaks and troughs is not adequately simulated, with each model and individual ensemble simulating a different phasing. Once the simulations of the ensemble members and different models are averaged, the natural internal variability contribution is averaged out, effectively cancelling the role of natural internal variability in the attribution process.

The time series of global surface temperature anomalies since 1850 (Figure 8.1) shows irregular variations of significant amplitude against the background of an overall warming trend and, after 1976, a pronounced difference in trends between the Northern Hemisphere and the Southern Hemisphere. The period between 1905-1945 shows a strong trend of warming. The following thirty years from 1945-1976 showed slightly declining temperatures. The most recent warming period started in 1977.

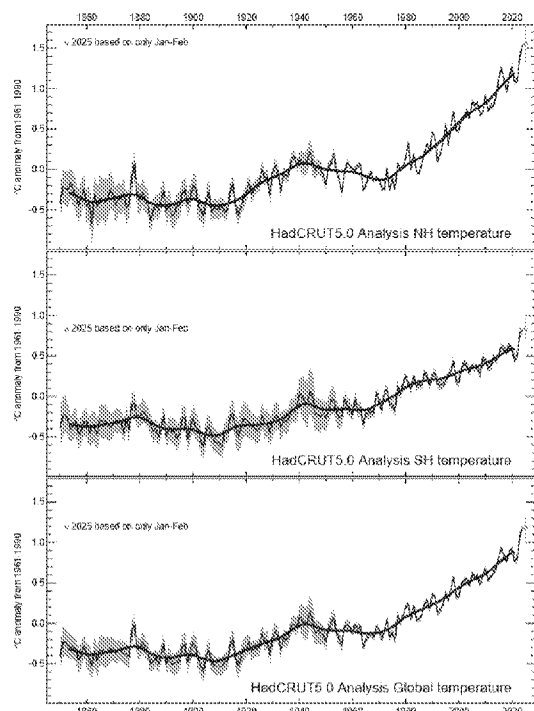


Figure 8.1 Global average surface temperature anomalies 1850—2025. Top: Northern hemisphere. Middle: Southern hemisphere. Bottom: Global average. Source: UK Hadley Centre [[HYPERLINK "https://crudata.uea.ac.uk/cru/data/temperature/HadCRUT5.0Analysis.pdf" \]](https://crudata.uea.ac.uk/cru/data/temperature/HadCRUT5.0Analysis.pdf)]

The causes of the early 20th century warming are discussed by Hegerl et al. (2017; 2019). The atmospheric CO₂ concentration increased from 298 ppm in 1905 to 310 ppm in 1941; hence this implies that CO₂ had little impact on the warming. Volcanic activity during this period was very low, and solar forcing is uncertain. Hegerl et al (2017) somehow inferred that 40-54% of this warming could be attributed to external forcing, with the rest associated with internal variability. Bronniman et al (2024) focused on the causes of the cooling in the first decade of the 20th century in the Southern Hemisphere. They found that the cooling was related to a La-Niña-like pattern in the Pacific, a cold tropical and subtropical South Atlantic, a cold extratropical South Pacific, and cool southern midlatitude land areas. The Southern Annular Mode was positive, with a strengthened Amundsen–Bellingshausen seas low, although the spread of the data products is considerable.

The warming in the 1930's and subsequent cooling during mid century was particularly pronounced in the Arctic. Bokuchava and Semenov (2021) find that most likely these variations were caused by a combined effect of long-term natural climate variations in the North Atlantic and North Pacific with a contribution of the natural radiative forcing related to the reduced volcanic activity and variations of solar activity as well as growing greenhouse gases concentrations. Tokinaga et al (2017) showed that the combined effect of internally generated Pacific and Atlantic interdecadal variability intensified Arctic

warming in the early 20th century. The synchronized Pacific-Atlantic warming drastically alters planetary-scale circulations over the Northern Hemisphere; these same circulation patterns have a global influence.

The cooling period between 1945 and 1976 has been referred to as the “grand hiatus.” Numerous causes have been hypothesized: natural internal variability from fluctuations associated with the Pacific Decadal Oscillation (PDO) and Atlantic Multidecadal Oscillation; cooling from increased emissions of aerosols from industrial activities; increased heat uptake in the Atlantic, Southern and Equatorial Pacific Oceans. Thompson et al. (2010) find that the hemispheric differences in temperature trends in the middle of the twentieth century stem largely from a rapid drop in Northern Hemisphere sea surface temperatures of about 0.3 °C between about 1968 and 1972.

The Great Pacific Climate Shift of 1976-1977 was a notable climatic event characterized by an abrupt change in the North Pacific Ocean's atmosphere-ocean system that interacted with global climate patterns. This shift is closely associated with the Pacific Decadal Oscillation (PDO) that oscillates between warm and cool phases over decades. The 1976 shift marked a transition from a predominantly negative (cool) PDO phase (1947–1976) to a positive (warm) phase (1977 through 2000), with significant implications for global and regional climate patterns including the frequencies of El Niño and La Niña events. The Great Pacific Climate Shift coincided with the beginning of a period of accelerated global warming. When the Great Pacific Climate Shift is accounted for in climate attribution analyses since 1950, 40 percent or more of the warming in the second half of the 20th century is attributed to natural internal variability (McLean et al., 2009; Tung and Zhou, 2013; Chylek et al., 2016; Scafetta, 2021).

8.3.2 *Optimal fingerprinting*

Optimal fingerprinting is a statistical technique introduced by Allen and Tett (1999) that compares observed climate data to climate model simulations to identify patterns (or “fingerprints”) associated with human or natural forcing. It involves taking a vector of observed climate changes, such as warming rates in locations around the world, and decomposing them into a weighted sum of “signals”, which are analogues to the observations generated by climate models with different types of forcings. The weights are chosen using a regression method called Total Least Squares. The analysis commonly uses just two signals, one generated by models using only anthropogenic forcings and one using only natural forcings. If the estimated weighting coefficient attached to a signal is significantly different from zero, then that signal is said to be “detected”. If it is close to 1.0, then the model generating the signal is said to be consistent with observations. If it is less than 1.0, then the model signal for that forcing is too strong and needs to be scaled down, and vice-versa. Both the observed data and the signals are weighted using a model-generated estimate of patterns of randomness in the climate system so as, in principle, to put maximum weight on regions where natural variability is minimized.

Optimal fingerprinting is the primary tool for attribution in the research literature. While it has been widely used and prominently featured by the IPCC since 2001 there is very little literature examining the statistical properties of the results it generates. One of its inherent weaknesses is that results depend on assumptions about the accuracy of climate models, especially regarding their representation of natural variability (IPCC AR5 Ch 10.2.3).

A series of papers by McKittrick (McKittrick 2022a, 2022b, 2023, 2025) has challenged the optimal fingerprinting method, arguing that it is inherently unreliable and that practices adopted from econometrics can provide more valid results. Statistical theory requires that for regression models to yield unbiased coefficients, a set of assumptions called the Gauss-Markov conditions must hold. McKittrick (2022a) argued that the Allen and Tett (1999) methodology violates the Gauss-Markov conditions, leading to potentially biased and inconsistent fingerprinting coefficients, undermining the reliability of the method. Chen et al. (2023) confirmed this analysis and argued that the method could yield unbiased results but only under very stringent assumptions. McKittrick (2022b) and (2023) raised a further concern that climate scientists—virtually alone

among scientific disciplines—have used an estimation method called Total Least Squares (TLS) to estimate anthropogenic greenhouse gas signal coefficients, despite its tendency to be unreliable unless some strong assumptions hold that in practice are unlikely to be true. Under conditions that easily arise in optimal fingerprinting, TLS yields estimates with large positive biases. Thus, any study that used TLS for optimal fingerprinting without verifying its applicability in the specific data context has likely overstated the result.

McKittrick (2025) presented an empirical example comparing the results of conventional optimal fingerprinting against methods drawn from mainstream econometrics that are known to be valid for the specific application of signal detection. While the IPCC optimal fingerprinting method yields an anthropogenic signal coefficient close to 1.0 on a global temperature data set spanning 1900 to 2010, consistent estimation yields a coefficient around 0.4, which rises to about 0.65 on data spanning 1980 to 2010, implying the model response to greenhouse gases needs to be scaled down by about half to optimally match observations. The natural forcing signal coefficient, by contrast, is between 2.0 and 4.0, implying the climate model signals of natural forcing need to be scaled up two- to four-fold to match observed climate change. The fingerprinting coefficients estimated in McKittrick (2025), when used to scale the average sensitivity of the climate models used to generate the forcing signals in his data set, imply a Transient Climate Sensitivity of 1.4°C, which is consistent with the estimate by Lewis (2022) using a different estimation method and multiple independent data sets.

While these analyses do not falsify all results stemming from the IPCC optimal fingerprinting method, they do challenge the basis on which they were believed to be correct.

8.3.3 Time series methods

The IPCC (AR5 WGI 10.2.2) drew attention to alternative approaches of assessing causality that emerged from the time series econometrics literature. These have the advantage of not depending on assumptions about the accuracy of climate models, but the disadvantage that they depend on difficult-to-test assumptions about the data generating process underlying climate and forcing data. The methods, now referred to as climate econometrics, use the tools of unit root testing, Granger causality and cointegration analysis, all of which are familiar in economics and finance and which are slowly being adopted in climate science. Time series analysis methods hold out the possibility of determining whether anthropogenic or natural forcings are the primary drivers of climate change without requiring the use of climate models, although key questions remain unsettled (e.g. Dergiades et al., 2016, Balcombe et al., 2019, Dagsvik et al., 2020, Razzak, 2022, Dagsvik and Moen, 2023).

“Granger causality” modeling is a tool for determining directions of influence in data series that move together. It is a statistical, not a physical, concept. If knowing the current value of one variable significantly improves the forecast accuracy of another variable we can infer a causal connection exists; this is called Granger causality. The modeling tools, called vector autoregression, measure direct impulse-response patterns and feedbacks. An application to the well-known Vostok ice core data revealed an error in Al Gore’s documentary *An Inconvenient Truth*. Gore showed the data and drew attention to the coherence of temperature and CO₂ changes over a 440,000 year span, which he asserted was due to CO₂ driving temperature changes. But temperature changes can also affect atmospheric CO₂ levels. Davidson et al. (2015) examined the series and found that temperature Granger causes CO₂ but not the reverse. In other words on the time scales represented in the Vostok data the coherence in the series is primarily due to the influence of temperature on CO₂ levels not the feedback of CO₂ levels on temperature.

In summary, the primary statistical methods for attributing causation in climate data are optimal fingerprinting and time series analysis. Applications of the Allen and Tett (1999) optimal fingerprinting method dominate the attribution literature and have underpinned past IPCC conclusions, but results depend on the accuracy of climate models and the method has recently

been criticized as inherently biased. Time series methods do not depend on climate models but require assumptions of their own and have generated results that have thus far not converged on a consensus.

8.4 Declining planetary albedo and recent record warmth

A sharp recent increase in global average temperatures has raised the question of short-term drivers of climate. One such candidate is the fraction of absorbed solar radiation which has also changed abruptly in recent years. The question to be answered is whether the change is an internal feedback to warming caused by greenhouse gases or whether something else changed the fraction of absorbed radiation which then caused the recent warming.

The albedo is the fraction of incoming solar radiation that is reflected back into space rather than being absorbed by the planet. Highly reflective surfaces like cloud tops and snow and ice are most important in this regard. The Earth's albedo is approximately 30%, meaning almost a third of the sunlight that reaches Earth is directly reflected back to space. A lower albedo implies more solar energy is absorbed by the planet to be then re-radiated as heat. Hence, other things being equal, a decline in albedo is associated with a warming of the Earth.

Arguably the most striking change in the Earth's climate system during the 21st century is a significant reduction in planetary albedo since 2015, which has coincided with at least two years of record global warmth. Figure 8.1 shows the planetary albedo variations since 2000, when there are good satellite observations. The 0.5% reduction in planetary albedo since 2015 corresponds to an increase of 1.7 W/m^2 in solar energy averaged over the planet (Hansen and Karecha, 2025). For comparison, the IPCC estimate of forcing from the increase in atmospheric CO_2 compared to preindustrial times is approximately 2.2 W/m^2 (Figure 3.1.2).

Looking back prior to 2000 with less adequate data, Gossling et al. (2025) assessed that planetary albedo was relatively low around the 1940's and 50's, before rising industrial aerosol precursor emissions increased albedo until the 1980's. The strongest planetary albedo excursions were high-albedo episodes caused by volcanic eruptions, such as after the Mount Pinatubo eruption in 1991. Although uncertain, the 2023 planetary albedo minimum may have been the lowest since at least 1940.

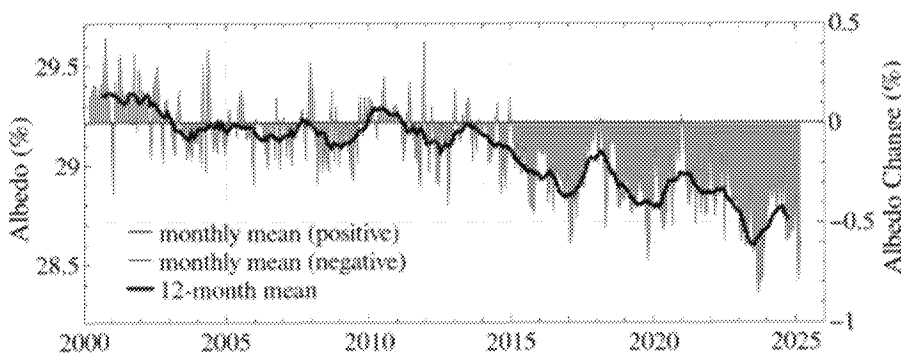


Figure 8.1. Earth’s albedo (reflectivity, in percent), with seasonality removed. From Hansen and Karecha (2025)

Changes in surface characteristics can’t explain this decrease in planetary albedo since 2015:

- Arctic sea ice extent has declined by about 5% since 1980 (https://nsidc.org/data/seaice_index/images/s_plot_hires.png), although following 2007 there has been a pause in the Arctic sea ice decline (England et al., 2025)
- Regarding Antarctic sea ice, the IPCC AR6 concludes that “There has been no significant trend in Antarctic sea ice area from 1979 to 2020 due to regionally opposing trends and large internal variability.” (SPM, A.1.5)
- Northern hemispheric annual snow cover has been slowly declining since 1967, with barely significant trends. The data show the Northern Hemisphere has snowier winters, accompanied by more rapid melt in spring and summer.
[[HYPERLINK "http://climate.rutgers.edu/snowcover/"](http://climate.rutgers.edu/snowcover/)]
- Global greening (Chapter 2) is contributing to the decrease in planetary albedo, as forests have a lower albedo than open lands or snow. However, there is some evidence that forests increase cloud cover (high reflectivity), which counteracts the direct albedo increase associated with increasing forested area.

Changes in surface reflectivity are contributing to a small, slow decline in planetary albedo. However, these changes cannot explain the sharp decline in planetary albedo beginning in 2015. Further, any changes in surface albedo are effectively damped by about a factor 3 on average, primarily due to cloud masking (Loeb et al. 2019). Surface albedo changes have thus contributed only weakly to the recent planetary albedo decline, particularly when averaged annually and globally.

This leaves the most likely explanation for the sharp albedo decline as changes in atmospheric aerosols and/or clouds.

Aerosols are small particles in the atmosphere that reflect sunlight and can interact with cloud processes to make the clouds more reflective. Aerosols have both natural origins (e.g dust from soils, wildfires) as well as human origins from combustion (including fossil fuels). Regions that are greening and/or have an increase in rainfall may be producing less dust. For anthropogenic aerosols, new ship fuel regulations aimed at reducing sulfur emissions were implemented in three phases, in 2010, 2015 and 2020. Sulfate particles reflect solar radiation. Cleaner air means less solar radiation is reflected, which contributes to surface warming. Indirect effects of sulfate aerosols include increasing the reflectivity of low-level clouds in the subtropics. There is controversy surrounding the importance of this change in sulfate emissions to the Earth’s radiation balance (Hodnebrog et al., 2024; Yuan et al., 2024), but the restriction of this effect to major shipping routes suggests a small global impact (Schmidt, 2024).

This leaves changes in clouds as the primary candidate to explain the decline in global albedo since 2015. Two recent papers (Loeb et al., 2024; Gosling et al 2024) have addressed recent variations in cloud properties. By considering satellite and reanalysis data, Loeb et al. found that decreases in low and mid-level clouds since 2015 are the primary reason for decreasing planetary albedo in the Northern hemisphere, whereas in the Southern hemisphere the decrease in planetary albedo is primarily due to decreases in mid-level clouds across all latitude zones. Gosling et al. (2025) found that cloud anomalies were mainly due to reduced low-level clouds. Regions with coherent low-level cloud reductions over the past decade include the warm pool region around the Maritime Continent and the northern extratropical western Pacific, as well as large parts of the Atlantic and adjacent land regions. The reduction of global cloud cover identified in these analyses since 2015 is 1-2 percent.

The question then becomes what caused the change in cloud cover. Two causes have been posited for the declining cloud cover over the past decade:

- Natural climate variability
- Changes in low cloud cover associated with warming sea surface temperatures, implying an emerging positive feedback to climate change (Hansen and Karecha, 2025)

The existence of a new positive low cloud feedback that began emerging in 2015 is not easy to justify. However, there are numerous natural climate signals during this period that are associated with atmospheric circulation changes that can influence the distribution of clouds:

- The 2014-2016 was the strongest El Niño event on record
- A cold anomaly beginning in 2015 in the subpolar gyre of the North Atlantic reflects a shift in the ocean circulation pattern associated with decadal variability in the Atlantic (Frajka-Williams et al, 2017; Arthun et al. 2021).
- The Pacific Decadal Oscillation (PDO) positive index peaked in 2016, then declined and has been in negative territory since late 2019
- Eruption of the submarine Hunga-Tonga volcano in 2022

Interannual cloud anomalies associated with the El Niño Southern Oscillation (ENSO) have a significant global signal and strong regional signals especially over the tropical Indian and Pacific Oceans.

The Hunga Tonga eruption is remarkable in its coincidence with the exceptionally low value of planetary albedo in 2023. Gossling et al. (2025) found that the cloud perturbations in 2023 showed a different pattern from the overall pattern since 2015, with reduced cloud cover being most pronounced in the northern hemisphere and tropics. Regional reductions in cloud cover were most pronounced over the eastern Indian Ocean, over South America and extending over the eastern Pacific, as well as over northern North America, in the Southern Ocean around 60S, in the subtropical and eastern North Atlantic, and in parts of the North Pacific.

The Hunga Tonga eruption was unusual in that it injected large amounts of water vapor into the stratosphere, in addition to sulfate particles. Early publications focused on the impacts to stratospheric circulations and the direct radiative impact. In 2025, papers are emerging that examine the indirect effects of Hunga Tonga on surface climate using ensemble simulations from earth system models (Bednarz et al, 2025; Kuchar et al., 2025). These papers found statistically significant impacts on regional climates that were driven by circulation changes from couplings between the stratosphere and troposphere. These papers indicate the complex interactions between volcanic activity and climate dynamics. More research is needed to untangle any impacts of Hunga Tonga eruption on planetary albedo.

In summary, the decline in planetary albedo and the concurrent decline in cloudiness have emphasized the importance of clouds and their variations to global climate variability and change. A change of 1 to 2 percent in global cloud cover has a greater radiative impact on the climate than the direct radiative effect of doubling CO₂. While it is difficult to untangle causes of the trend, the competing explanations for the cause of the declining cloud cover have substantial implications for assessing the Equilibrium Climate Sensitivity and also the attribution of the recent warming. An additional 10 years of data should help clarify whether this is a strong positive cloud feedback associated with warming, or a temporary fluctuation driven by natural variability

8.5 Attribution of climate impact drivers

The IPCC (Ranasinghe et al. 2021) defines “climate impact drivers” or CIDs as “physical climate system conditions (e.g., means, events, extremes) that affect an element of society or ecosystems.” Hence CIDs are those features of the weather and climate system of primary interest in assessing the impacts of climate change since they potentially affect humans and the natural world. For instance, under the heading “Heat and Cold” CIDs are identified as mean air temperature, extreme heat, cold spells and frost. The IPCC also points out that CIDs are not necessarily harm-related: depending on the system in question they can be detrimental, neutral, beneficial or a combination.

The first column of Table 12.12 in Ranasinghe et al. (2021, p. 1856), reproduced here as Table 8.1, summarizes the AR6 assessment of whether a signal of attributable anthropogenic influence has emerged across all major CIDs. One of the themes of this chapter is that attribution methods used by the IPCC tend to overstate the anthropogenic influence and understate the role of natural variability. Nonetheless a striking feature of that summary table is how few CIDs exhibit an anthropogenic signal sufficient to distinguish them from natural variability.

Climatic Impact-driver Type	Climatic Impact-driver Category	Already Emerged in Historical Period
Heat and Cold	Mean air temperature	1
	Extreme heat	4
	Cold spell	4
	Frost	
Wet and Dry	Mean precipitation	
	River flood	
	Heavy precipitation and pluvial flood	
	Landslide	
	Aridity	
	Hydrological drought	
	Agricultural and ecological drought	
	Rice weather	
Wind	Mean wind speed	
	Severe wind storm	
	Tropical cyclone	
	Sand and dust storm	
Snow and Ice	Snow, glacier and ice sheet	
	Permafrost	
	Lake, river and sea ice	11
	Heavy snowfall and ice storm	
	Hail	
	Snow avalanche	
Coastal	Relative sea level	
	Coastal flood	
	Coastal erosion	
Open Ocean	Mean ocean temperature	
	Marine heatwave	
	Ocean acidity	
	Ocean salinity	13
	Dissolved oxygen	14
Other	Air pollution weather	
	Atmospheric CO ₂ at surface	
	Radiation at surface	

High confidence of decrease
Medium confidence of decrease
Low confidence in direction of change
Medium confidence of increase
High confidence of increase

Table 8.1: Reproduction of column 1 of Table 12.12, IPCC AR6 Working Group I report. Emergence of anthropogenic signal in historical period for CIDs shown. White: no signal detected. Blue and orange: change detected (decrease or increase) and confidence level as indicated in color legend.

Out of the 33 weather impact categories an anthropogenic signal is asserted with *high confidence* in only five, and with *medium confidence* in a further four. (Note that one of the CIDs is an increase in CO₂ levels, and since it is a tautology to attribute this to increased CO₂ levels this CID can be ignored.) For the rest the IPCC does not claim to have detected anthropogenic drivers. Of the five *high confidence assertions*, two are for changes in average temperatures (air and ocean) hence are not measures of extreme weather. Also two of the four *medium confidence* assertions are related to ocean chemistry and thus are likewise not related to extreme weather. The IPCC does not assert a human influence on many non-temperature weather features such as wind, precipitation, flooding, drought etc.

Columns 2 and 3 of IPCC Table 12.12 report on whether anthropogenic signals are expected to emerge this century under RCP8.5, the most extreme forcing scenario. We have omitted these columns for several reasons. First, because they refer to whether climate models project detectable signals in the observations, which is a very different question than our concern here, whether a signal has been detected in historical data. Second, as we discuss in Chapter 4, the RCP8.5 scenario is a misleading and implausible high-end storyline, it is not a “base case” or business-as-usual projection. Third, the ensemble of detailed models is acknowledged (Palmer and Stevens 2019) to be “not fit for purpose” in describing regional changes and “unable to represent future conditions at the degree of spatial, temporal, and probabilistic precision with which projections are often provided.” (Nissan et al, 2019)). Even with these caveats, we note that the omitted columns in AR6 Table 12.12 indicate most weather impacts are not expected to exhibit an anthropogenic signal this century.

As we discussed in Chapter 7 natural variability dominates patterns of extreme weather systems and simplistic assertions of trend detection are frequently undermined by regional heterogeneity and trend reversals over time. Table 8.1 makes the related point that, again contrary to popular belief, attribution of changes in most extreme weather types to human influence is not currently possible. Taking wind as an example, the IPCC claims that an anthropogenic signal has not emerged in average wind speeds, severe windstorms, tropical cyclones or sand and dust storms, nor is one expected to emerge this century even under an extreme emissions scenario. The same applies to drought and fire weather.

Citations Palmer [[HYPERLINK "https://www.pnas.org/doi/full/10.1073/pnas.1906691116"](https://www.pnas.org/doi/full/10.1073/pnas.1906691116)]

Nissan [[HYPERLINK "https://wires.onlinelibrary.wiley.com/doi/10.1002/wcc.579"](https://wires.onlinelibrary.wiley.com/doi/10.1002/wcc.579)]

8.6 Extreme event attribution (EEA)

Examining the IPCC’s treatment of extreme weather and climate event attribution more broadly, the AR6 provides an ambiguous assessment of the role of anthropogenic warming that differs between chapters. Chapter 11 of WGI states (Seneviratne et al., 2021):

“Evidence of observed changes in extremes and their attribution to human influence (including greenhouse gas and aerosol emissions and land-use changes) has strengthened since AR5, in particular for extreme precipitation, droughts, tropical cyclones and compound extremes (including dry/hot events and fire weather). Some recent hot extreme events would have been extremely unlikely to occur without human influence on the climate system.”

By contrast, as noted above, Chapter 12 of WG1 (Table 12.12) paints a different picture – presumably, the expert judgment of different groups of authors for the two chapters came to different conclusions (Ranasinghe, 2021):

- High confidence in an increase in extreme heat events in tropical regions where observations allow trend estimation and in most regions in the mid-latitudes, medium confidence elsewhere
- Medium confidence in a decrease in extreme cold events in Australia, Africa and most of northern South America where observations allow trend estimation
- No evidence of emergence in the historical period of a change in river floods, heavy precipitation, drought, fire weather, severe wind storms, and tropical cyclones

While the overall issue of detecting changes in extreme weather events and their attribution remains ambiguous, most of the activity in this area relates to the attribution of particular extreme weather events. The most prominent effort is World Weather Attribution (WWA; worldweatherattribution.org), an international research initiative for extreme event attribution that purports to analyze how climate change influences the likelihood and intensity of extreme weather events. Their approach is to use large ensembles of regional climate models to compare the event in today's climate with a counterfactual pre-industrial climate without human influences.

WWA has a prominent public presence in linking extreme weather to climate change, with its press releases attracting considerable attention in public and policy discussions. However, the WWA's extensive promotion of non-peer-reviewed findings, its funding ties, its open admission to shaping analyses to serve litigation, and its methodological challenges have sparked controversies, with critics questioning the robustness and impartiality of their conclusions (Pielke Jr. 2024). Despite these issues, WWA's work continues to influence climate science and media narratives. Technical criticisms of the approach include a lack of a formal detection process; an implicit assumption that 100% of the post-industrial warming is caused by greenhouse gases; and a failure to adequately account for internal climate variability.

Because EEA is relatively new many basic methodological issues have yet to be settled in the expert literature. An important challenge is the lack of data. Extreme events are by definition rare. Many analyses of extreme event types (including the US National Assessment Reports) only evaluate data since 1950 or 1970. However, as emphasized by Chapter 7, many of the worst extreme weather and climate events in U.S. history occurred prior to the first half of the 20th century including in the early 19th century. And if paleoclimate reconstructions are considered, it becomes very difficult for an event to pass the detection thresholds of exceeding what is expected from natural variability, particularly if a reasonably sized geographic region is considered.

Another challenge is defining the event under study. There is a longstanding literature in statistics and econometrics on the challenge of analyzing data with outliers. The issue arises because a data series establishes a probability distribution defining the expected range of observations. If an outlier is observed it might indicate that the underlying process giving rise to the data distribution has changed (which in the weather context would mean that a climate change has been detected) or that the underlying process has multiple regimes each with a different probability distribution, in which case observing an outlier simply means we were temporarily in a different regime, but the system itself was unchanged. If a time series contains only a single outlier event at the end of the series it is not possible to determine which model is the correct one (Chen and Liu 1993). For instance, there might be an "ordinary" weather regime that yields a distribution of summer daytime highs in a particular coastal region, and a second "heatwave" regime that kicks in when an inland blocking event occurs, which yields a temperature distribution centered 15°C higher than the first one. A day with temperatures 13°C above normal would either be an extreme heat anomaly under the first regime or a somewhat cool event under the second, and we have no way in this case of knowing on statistical grounds which view is correct.

Visser and Petersen (2012) and Sardeshmukh et al. (2015) both point out that different distributions may fit observed data equally well but yield very different implications about the likelihood of a specific weather event. Visser and Petersen argue that, in view of the deep uncertainties of extreme weather analysis drawing a connection between individual events and global climate change should be avoided. Furthermore, the existence of an outlier at the end of a data series poses the problem that estimates of the event probabilities will be biased whether the outlier is included or excluded (Barlow et al., 2020). Methods to eliminate the bias have not yet been established, leading some experts (e.g. Miralles and Davison 2023) to argue that in settings in which a data series contains a single extreme event at the end, estimation of a return period for the extreme event will be so biased and uncertain it should be avoided altogether.

In spite of these concerns, the U.S. is presently considering something like the WWA, which is being investigated by a NASEM Panel on Attribution of Extreme Weather and Climate Events and their impacts (NASEM, 2025).

We provide a case study of a recent high impact extreme event in the U.S. to illustrate the challenges and ambiguities in attributing the frequency and intensity of extreme weather events to human-caused warming.

8.6.1 Case study – 2021 Western North America heat wave

The 2021 Western North America heat wave was an extreme event that affected much of Western North America in late June 2021. In particular, surface temperature records were set in Portland, OR (116°F; previous record 107°F) and Seattle, WA (108 °F; previous record 103°F) (Mass et al., 2024).

The WWA team generated international headlines with their analysis, which provided the following attribution statements (WWA, 2021; Philip et al., 2022):

- Based on observations and modeling, the occurrence of this heatwave was virtually impossible without human-caused climate change.
- The event is estimated to be about a 1 in 1000-year event in today's climate.
- The event would have been at least 150 times rarer without human-induced climate change.
- This heatwave was about 2°C hotter than it would have been if it had occurred at the beginning of the industrial revolution (when global mean temperatures were 1.2°C cooler than today).

But an important counter to the first claim is that other researchers concluded from historical weather data that while a heat wave of the magnitude observed was indeed virtually impossible without anthropogenic climate change, it was also virtually impossible *with* climate change. Bercos-Hickey (2022) noted “these temperatures were virtually impossible under any previously experienced meteorological conditions, with or without global warming.” McKinnon and Simpson (2022) stated “the most likely explanation remains that the weather event itself was ‘bad luck.’” The 2023 Oregon Climate Assessment (Fleischman, 2023) concluded that the heat dome would have formed even without climate change and “There is no evidence that the highly unusual combination of weather features that drove the heat dome were made more likely by climate change, and climate models do not project an increase in the frequency of high-pressure ridges over the Pacific Northwest” (Fleischman, 2023, p. 49).

Mass et al. (2024) summarizes the proximate sequence of compound events leading to the heat wave. There was a record-breaking mid-tropospheric ridge over the Pacific Northwest, forced by a tropical disturbance in the western Pacific. This produced record-breaking mid-tropospheric temperatures, strong subsidence in the lower atmosphere, low-level easterly flow that produced downslope warming on regional terrain and the removal of cooler marine air, and an approaching low-level trough that enhanced downslope flow. The event occurred at a time of maximum solar insolation, and drier-than-normal soil moisture. Using

a storyline approach, Mass et al. assessed that there is no trend in drought and dry soils in the Pacific Northwest; there is no evidence of global warming producing stronger ridges of high pressure, and no observed trend in heat waves or record temperatures in the region. They concluded that although anthropogenic warming may have contributed as much as 2°F to the magnitude of the event, there is little evidence of further amplification of the event from increasing greenhouse gases.

Bercos-Hickey et al. (2022) conducted a statistical analysis of a model-based attribution study of this heat wave. Because the event is a far outlier and far above the bounds of Generalized Extreme Value distributions fitted from historical data, they concluded that estimates of return times, quantitative changes in event magnitude and frequency, and probability of the extreme temperatures such as provided by the WWA are not accurate and should be interpreted as having low confidence. They found that hindcast attribution methods using an ensemble of regional climate models, combined with Pearl (2009) causal inferences, can provide limited and conditional information about the magnitude of the human influence on this heatwave - they provided a more highly constrained estimate that human activities caused a $\sim 1.4^{\circ}\text{C}$ – 1.8°F increase in the daily maximum temperatures.

Zeder et al. (2023) also concluded that the methods employed by Philip et al. (2022, the WWA analysis) tend to overstate the rarity of extreme heat waves, leading to a biased perception of the effect of climate change on the heatwave event: “The tendency to overestimate the return period of observed extreme heatwave events may fuel the impression that seemingly impossible heatwave extremes are currently clustering at an unprecedented rate.”

The 2021 Western North America heatwave was a rare and unprecedented compound weather event that broke century-old temperature records by as much as 9°F. While the WWA team received worldwide publicity for their rapid attribution claims blaming anthropogenic climate change, subsequent peer-reviewed analyses showed that the event was caused by rare meteorological conditions that were not made more probable by global warming.

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PART III: IMPACTS ON ECOSYSTEMS AND SOCIETY

9 CLIMATE CHANGE AND US AGRICULTURE

Chapter summary

There is abundant evidence going back decades that rising CO₂ levels benefit plants, including agricultural crops, and that CO₂-induced warming will be a net benefit to US agriculture. The warming since 1981, in combination with adaptive behavior by farmers, has been beneficial for maize. The increased ambient CO₂ has also boosted productivity of all major US crop types. Various attempts to argue that CO₂-induced warming will harm agriculture do not hold up under scrutiny.

9.1 Econometric analyses

Econometric analyses of the effects of climate change on agriculture have sought to integrate information about long term crop yield changes in response to temperature and precipitation changes under assumptions about adaptive behavior by farmers. One method focuses on variations in agricultural land values. The rationale is that if climate change is a long-term net benefit for agriculture it should be capitalized into higher market values for agricultural land, and vice versa. While individual crops might benefit from or be harmed by climate change, once the adaptive responses of farmers are considered the value of farmland represents an index of whether the changes are expected to be beneficial or not. Mendelsohn et al. (1994) examined the relationship between historical climatic variations on agricultural land values and concluded global warming would be slightly beneficial to American agriculture.

The Mendelsohn et al. method, called Ricardian analysis after David Ricardo, the 19th century British economist who pioneered the study of land values, attracted subsequent criticism from authors who argued it failed to account for differences in land values attributable to fixed locational characteristics like soil quality, and non-climatic changes including nearby urbanization. Deschênes and Greenstone (2007) looked at agricultural profits instead of land values and reached conclusions similar to Mendelsohn et al. (1994), namely that past climatic variations had relatively little effect on farm profitability and that warming would likely yield small overall benefits for the US agricultural sector. However, a subsequent exchange with critics led them (Deschênes and Greenstone 2012) to revise their conclusions and project potentially large losses in US agriculture due to climate warming.

Burke and Emerick (2016) looked at temperature variations over 1980 to 2000 and argued that farmers were not as able to adapt to temperature changes as the Ricardian method assumes and that climate change would have large negative impacts on corn and soy yields. Schlenker and Roberts (2009) similarly argued that yield gains to past warming would not carry over to the future and corn and soy yields would sharply decrease this century due to climate change.

Two recent studies have argued that pessimistic findings such as these are not robust. Ortiz-Bobea (2019) argued that land values aggregate farm and non-farm influences and the latter need to be filtered out. He developed a data set using cash rents for agricultural activity as a measure of land value specifically for farming activity. Whereas the land value model implied future losses under climate warming, the same model estimated using cash rents did not, leading the author to conclude the pessimistic results were due to using an inaccurate measure of the returns to farming activity. Bareille and Chakir (2023) assembled a large data base on farm sale prices in France for properties that sold twice between 1996 and 2019. They could replicate pessimistic results showing negative effects of warming on agricultural land values using conventional econometric modeling. But by taking advantage of the repeat sales data, which provides information on site-specific changes in land prices, they found the results reversed and implied that climate change will be very beneficial for French agriculture. The authors concluded that, taking adaptation into account, a warming climate would yield positive benefits for French agriculture that were between two and

20 times larger than had previously been estimated. On average, with full adaptation, they concluded that climate changes under the medium RCP4.5 scenario could double the value of French farmland by 2100.

A major deficiency of all these studies, however, is that they omit the role of CO₂ fertilization. Climate change as it relates to this report is caused by GHG emissions, chiefly CO₂. The econometric analyses referenced above focus only on temperature and precipitation changes and do not take account of the beneficial growth effect of the additional CO₂ that drives them. As explained in Chapter 2 CO₂ is a major driver of plant growth, so this omission biases the analysis towards underestimation of the benefits of climate change to agriculture.

9.2 Field studies of CO₂ enrichment

One of the ways the effect of CO₂ on crop growth has been studied is through “free air enrichment experiment” or FACE plots, in which small sources of CO₂ are placed in fields surrounding plants and the growth response to elevated CO₂ under varying weather conditions are recorded. Ainsworth et al. (2020) summarizes results from about 250 such studies. They found that elevation of CO₂ by 200 ppm caused an average 18% increase in crop yield in C3 plants. C4 plants exhibited benefits mainly under drought conditions.

In addition to FACE plot experiments there have been thousands of laboratory experiments on the effects of CO₂ on all kinds of plant growth. Here we review some of the results on key US agricultural crops.

Soybean

Studies on the impact of elevated CO₂ on Soybean (*Glycine max* (L.) Merr.) plants in the water-deficient region of Huang-Huai-Hai Plain, China, showed that elevated CO₂ concentrations improved photosynthesis rate, water use efficiency, and growth (Li, 2013) under both normal conditions and drought conditions. The CO2Science.org website reports on 108 published experiments between 1985 and 2019 exposing soybean to enriched CO₂ levels. Converted to a +300ppm common scale the average growth benefit was +50.9 percent. There were also ten studies reporting on +600 ppm CO₂ enrichment, which increased photosynthesis by an average of 90.3%.

Maize (corn)

The CO2Science.org website reports on 28 published experiments between 1983 and 2018 exposing corn (*Zea mays* L.) to enriched CO₂ levels. Converted to a +300ppm common scale the average growth benefit was +23.7 percent. Corn also benefits from increased drought tolerance under elevated CO₂. An experimental study (Allen Jr, 2011) exposed plants to water stress conditions in sunlit controlled-environment chambers at 360 ppm (ambient) and 720 ppm (elevated) CO₂. The drought stress caused a 41% loss of growth under ambient CO₂ but only a 13% loss under elevated CO₂.

Wheat

The CO2Science.org website reports on 92 published experiments between 1983 and 2020 exposing common wheat (*Triticum aestivum* L.) to enriched CO₂ levels. Converted to a +300ppm common scale the average growth benefit was +67.6 percent. Blandino (2020) measured both the yield and nutritional quality of an “improver” hybrid wheat variety and its parents under elevated CO₂ levels (+166 ppm). They reported

a grain yield increase of +16% but a 7% decrease in grain protein levels. But they found that the food quality of different wheat varieties responded differently to elevated CO₂ levels, so that with proper varietal selection, growers could select wheat types that best take advantage of the elevated CO₂.

Further evidence

A 2021 report from the US National Bureau of Economic Research (Taylor and Schlenker 2021) used satellite-measured observations of outdoor CO₂ levels across the United States, matched to county-level agricultural output data and other economic variables. After controlling for the effects of weather, pollution and technology the authors concluded that CO₂ emissions had boosted U.S. crop production since 1940 by 50 to 80 percent, attributing much larger gains than had previously been estimated using FACE experiments. They found that every ppm of increase in CO₂ concentration boosts corn yields by 0.5 percent, soybeans by 0.6 percent, and wheat by 0.8 percent.

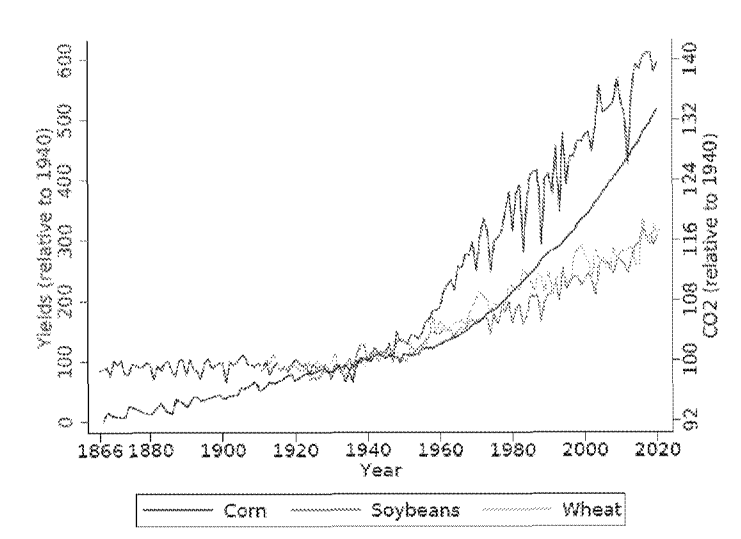


Figure 9.1: US average CO₂ levels and yields of corn, soy and wheat all normalized so 1940=100.
Source: Taylor and Schlenker (2021)

Beyond growth benefits, extra CO₂ boosts plant resilience to dryness. Derying et al. (2016) surveyed evidence on crop water productivity (CWP, the yield per unit of water used), drawing attention to the potential for CO₂ both to enhance photosynthesis and reduce leaf-level transpiration (water loss during leaf respiration). They surveyed all available FACE data on crop yield changes for Maize (corn), Wheat, Rice and Soybean, and combined it with crop model data simulating yield responses as of 2080 under the extreme RCP8.5 scenario in four growing regions (Tropics, Arid, Temperate and Cold) each of which were split into rainfed and irrigated sub-regions. In every region they reported that models without CO₂ fertilization predicted CWP losses but CO₂ fertilization more than offset them; once fertilization was taken into account,

all regions showed a net CWP gain. Deryng et al also reported that negative yield impacts on wheat and soybean were fully offset by CWP gains, and mitigated by up to 90% for rice and 60% for maize.

Similar to this, Cheng et al. (2017) noted that increased global plant growth from 1982 to 2011 due to rising CO₂ uptake was accompanied by such large gains in CWP that despite the extra biomass global water use by plants had not increased.

Deryng et al. (2016) assumed that climate change would “exacerbate water scarcity”. It is noteworthy that while models predict drylands will expand under climate warming, observations show the opposite: greening is happening even in arid areas. Zhang et al. (2014) report that due to increased CO₂ levels “increasing aridity in drylands won’t lead to a general loss of vegetation productivity”; increased desertification will happen in at most 4% of currently arid areas.

9.3 Crop modeling meta-analyses

Notwithstanding the abundant evidence for the direct benefits of CO₂ and of CO₂-induced warming on crop growth, in 2023 the US Environmental Protection Agency (EPA 2023) boosted its estimate of the Social Cost of Carbon (SCC) about five-fold based in large part on a very pessimistic 2017 estimate of global agricultural damages from climate warming (Moore et al., 2017). One of the two damage models used by the EPA attributed nearly half of the 2030 SCC to projected global agricultural damages based on the Moore et al. (2017) analysis. This study was a meta-analysis of crop model studies simulating yield changes for agricultural crops under various climate warming scenarios. Moore et al. projected declining global crop yields for all crop types in all regions due to warming.

McKittrick (2025) re-examined the Moore et al. database and found that, while it claimed to cover 1,722 studies, only half the entries ($N=862$) had complete records, so that the sample available for regression analysis was much smaller than both studies indicated. McKittrick noted that the variable most commonly missing was the change in ambient CO₂ and found that in many cases these could be recovered from the underlying studies or the original climate scenario tables. He thereby increased the usable sample size by 40 percent. The crop yield projections incorporating the newly available data changed considerably. As shown in Figure 10.2, whereas the partial data set implied warming would decrease yield (blue lines), the complete data set implied constant or increase global yields, even out to 5°C warming (green lines).

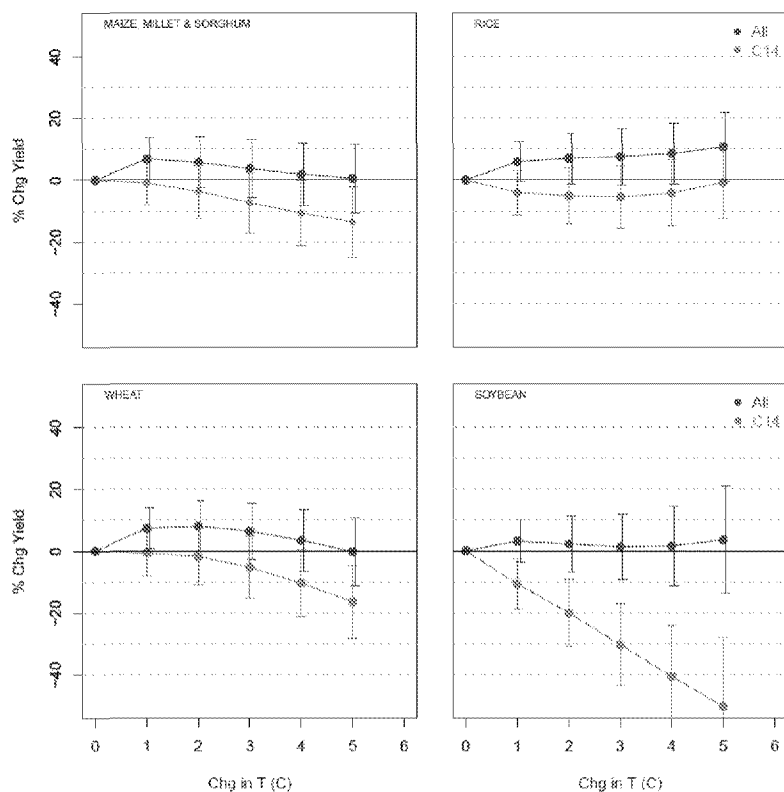


Figure 9.2 Crop yields under CO₂-induced climate warming. Blue: as published in Moore et al. (2017). Green: after including omitted data. Source: McKittrick (2025).

In summary, there is abundant evidence going back decades that rising CO₂ levels benefit plants including agricultural crops, and that CO₂-induced warming will be a net benefit to US agriculture.

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10 MANAGING RISKS OF EXTREME WEATHER

Chapter summary

Trends in losses from extreme weather and climate events are dominated by population increases and economic growth. Technological advances such as improved weather forecasting and early warning systems have substantially reduced losses from extreme weather events. Better building codes, flood defenses, and disaster response mechanisms have lowered economic losses relative to GDP. The US economy's expansion has diluted the relative impact of disaster costs, as seen in the comparison of historical and modern GDP percentages. Heat-related mortality risk has dropped substantially due to adaptive measures including the adoption of air conditioning, which relies on the availability of affordable energy. U.S. mortality risks even under extreme warming scenarios are not projected to increase as long as people are able to undertake adaptive responses.

10.1 Socioeconomic context

Risks from human-caused climate change are affected by natural weather and climate variability, and are dominated by the exposure of wealth in coastal and other disaster-prone regions and vulnerabilities of poorer populations. The evolution of climate risk in the U.S. has been dominated by societal factors, rather than by changes to the actual weather and climate hazards. Deaths from weather disasters have decreased substantially since 1900, even as US population grew from 76 million in 1900 to over 331 million in 2020 (Goklany, 2011). For example, the Galveston hurricane killed over 8,000 people in 1900 (0.01 % of the US population), whereas the worst recent disaster, Hurricane Katrina in 2005, killed 1800 people (or 0.0006% of the US population) (NOAA, 2025; USCB, 2025).

Technological advances have substantially reduced losses from extreme weather events. Early warning systems, satellite monitoring, and improved weather forecasting have reduced deaths, although exact numbers are hard to quantify (Deryugina and Hsiang, 2023). US weather forecasting has been estimated to reduce losses from weather events with an annualized benefit of \$31.5B, protecting lives, property, and supporting agriculture and transportation (NRC, 2010). Improved hurricane forecasts have reduced pre- and post-landfall spending, with annual per hurricane cost reductions estimated at \$5B (NBER, 2024).

Infrastructure improvements have contributed to substantial reductions in losses from extreme weather events. Building codes, such as those implemented in Florida after Hurricane Andrew (1992) have reduced losses by ensuring structures can withstand high winds and floods. Homes built after 2002 showed minimal damage during Hurricane Michael (2018), unlike older homes (FEMA, 2020). Sea walls, like the Galveston Seawall, protect against wave action and storm surge. The New Orleans Hurricane and Storm Damage Risk Reduction System successfully mitigated storm surge during Hurricane Isaac (2012) (BMI, 2013). Inland dams in the US help control flooding by storing excess water during heavy rains. It is estimated that the Tennessee Valley Authority (TVA) dams prevent about \$309M in annual flood damage in the TVA region and along the Ohio and Mississippi Rivers (TVA, 2025). During Hurricane Helene (2024), TVA's strategies prevented approximately \$406M in potential damages (APPA, 2024).

10.2 Data challenges

Since 1980, NOAA has provided a count of annual U.S. weather-related disasters that it estimates to have exceeded \$1 Billion (inflation adjusted), showing a substantial increase starting in 2008. NOAA and

other government officials have cited the upward trend in the Billion Dollar Disaster series as evidence that climate change is making extreme weather worse (Pielke Jr., 2024). But over time, population and wealth have increased dramatically in the US, so when an extreme weather or climate event occurs, there is more damage even if there is no underlying trend in the frequency or intensity of extreme weather. Pielke Jr. (2024) demonstrates that losses per weather disaster as a proportion of GDP have decreased by about 80% since 1980, as shown in the figure below. Pielke Jr. (2024) also argued that in addition to relying on opaque data sources and unreported adjustments, NOAA failed to normalize its Billion Dollar Disaster data series properly for changes in population exposure and wealth. In May 2025 NOAA announced it has withdrawn the Billion Dollar Disaster product from publication (Pielke Jr., 2025).

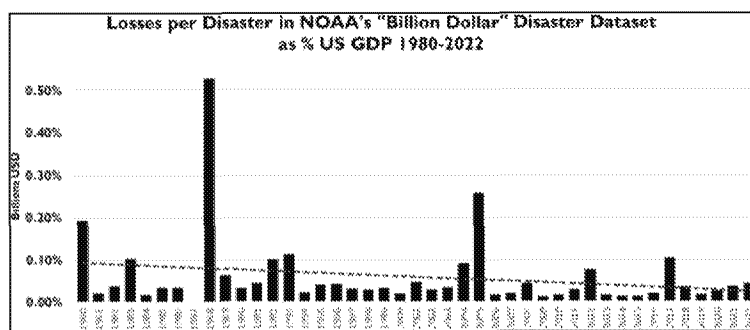


Figure 10.1: Losses per disaster in NOAA’s billion dollar disaster dataset (the version downloaded in July 2023), 1980 to 2022. Source: (Pielke, Jr. 2024)

In summary, trends in losses from extreme weather and climate events are dominated by population increases and economic growth. Technological advances such as improved weather forecasting and early warning systems have substantially reduced losses from extreme weather events. Better building codes, flood defenses, and disaster response mechanisms have lowered economic losses relative to GDP. And finally, the US economy’s expansion has diluted the relative impact of disaster costs, as seen in the comparison of historical and modern GDP percentages.

10.3 Mortality from temperature extremes

10.3.1 Heat and cold risks

Changes in temperature extremes are among the most certain impacts expected in a warming world. It stands to reason that extreme heat events would likely become more frequent while extreme cold events would become less frequent. This pattern is evident in the historical period though not in the continental US (Chapter 6) and is expected to continue with further warming.

Mortality during heat extremes is typically caused by heat stroke and heat exhaustion, while mortality during cold extremes is typically caused by hypothermia and heart strain. Global mortality is substantially greater for cold conditions than for hot conditions (Zhao et al 2021, Ritchie 20214). Unlike with heat-related mortality, Cold-weather risks set in even at moderately cold conditions (Gasparini et al. 2015, Lee and Dessler 2023). A 13-country study of 74 million deaths from 1985 to 2012 estimated that, on average, 7.7% of deaths were attributable to sub-optimal temperatures, of which 7.4% were attributable to cold and only 0.4% were attributable to heat (Gasparini et al. 2015). In other words cold weather killed 18.5 times as many people as did hot weather.

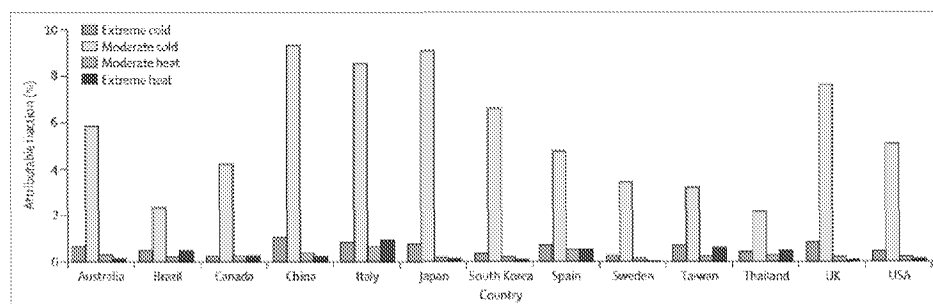


Figure 10.3.1. Mortality attributable to extreme and moderate cold and heat by country. Source: reproduced from Gasparini et al. (2015).

Figure 10.3.1 shows the distribution of results from Gasparini et al. (2015) by country. For the United States the fraction of deaths attributable to temperature was 5.9%, of which 5.5% was due to cold, thus cold weather killed 14 times as many people as hot weather.

The US EPA reports that, after adjusting for seasonality, the cold-related death rate in the U.S. ([HYPERLINK "https://www.epa.gov/climate-indicators/climate-change-indicators-cold-related-deaths" \t "_blank"]) is about twice as large as the heat-related rate (see [HYPERLINK "https://www.epa.gov/climate-indicators/climate-change-indicators-cold-related-deaths"] and ([HYPERLINK "https://www.epa.gov/climate-indicators/climate-change-indicators-heat-related-deaths" \t "_blank"])).

There is strong evidence that people adapt to weather risks. Lee and Dessler (2023) reported that 86% of temperature-related deaths across 40 cities in the U.S. were due to cold-related mortality, and that due to adaptation the relative risk of death declined in hot and cold cities alike as seasonal temperatures increased. Allen and Sheridan (2018) found that short, early-season cold events were 2 to 5 times deadlier than hot events, but the mortality risk of both cold and hot extremes drops to nearly zero if the events occur late in the season.

Davis et al. (2003) examined heat-related mortality in 28 U.S. cities from the 1960s to the end of the 1990s and found that heat-related mortality declined by three-quarters over the sample period. Bobb et al. (2014) examined mortality data for 106 million people in over 100 cities U.S. cities and found a 60% decline in average heat-related mortality over the period 1987—2005, from 51 per thousand deaths to 19. They furthermore found that the greatest drop was among seniors over the age of 75. In a study of 42 million

deaths in 211 U.S. cities from 1962 to 2006. Nordio et al. (2015) found a more than 90 percent decline in the risk of mortality from excess heat.

In the context of large declines in heat-related mortality, by reducing mortality from cold events rising temperatures are associated with a net saving of lives.

The IPCCAR6 WorkingGroup 2 Chapter 16.2.3.5 (O'Neill et al. 2022) acknowledges that heat-related mortality risk is declining over time:

“Heat-attributable mortality fractions have declined over time in most countries owing to general improvements in health care systems, increasing prevalence of residential air conditioning, and behavioral changes. These factors, which determine the susceptibility of the population to heat, have predominated over the influence of temperature change.”

It is both disappointing and telling to see how the IPCC misrepresents the situation in its AR6 Synthesis report. Section A.2.5 of that document states: “In all regions increases in extreme heat events have resulted in human mortality and morbidity (*very high confidence*).” But it is silent on the larger decline of deaths during extreme cold events.

The observed decline in US heat-related mortality has been specifically attributed to adaptation. Wang et al. (2018) exploited the spatial variability of heatwave-related mortality across 209 U.S. cities from 1962 to 2006. While simple correlation appeared to imply an increase in mortality risk during heatwaves, accounting for adaptation to heatwave intensity caused the effect to fall to near zero and become statistically insignificant. They used the results of their epidemiological model to project heat-related mortality out to 2050 under four RCP warming scenarios (including RCP8.5) with and without adaptive behavior. Assuming people continue to adapt to the heatwave risks in the regions in which they live Wang et al. project not only no increase in heat-related mortality but an overall decrease for the US as a whole. They conclude that

“Ignoring adaptation would result in a substantial overestimate of future mortality related to heat waves... Accounting for adaptation, the overall heat-related mortality by 2050 would not change substantially over time compared to 2006.”

10.3.2 Mortality risks and energy costs

A 2016 study of US long term mortality risks associated with temperature variations (Barreca et al. 2016) showed that increases in mortality across the US are associated both with cold weather and hot weather. But over time, the introduction of electricity and the adoption of central heating and air conditioning (AC) dramatically reduced both risks, especially those associated with hot weather. Prior to 1960, a day above 90°F (32°C) added 2.2 percent to the average mortality risk rate, but after 1960 the same weather added only 0.3 percent to mortality risk, an 85 percent reduction. Prior to 1960 temperatures below 39°F (4°C) added about 1 percent to mortality risk but after 1960 the same weather only added about half that amount. Adaptation through conventional household improvements dramatically reduced public vulnerability to weather extremes. The entire reduction in hot weather mortality was attributable to widespread adoption of indoor AC, which depended on the availability of reliable and affordable electricity.

The corollary of this finding is that the use of heating and cooling systems depends on energy being affordable. Doremus et al. (2022) showed that wealthy and poor households in the US adjust their energy expenditures at similar rates in response to moderate temperature swings, but not in response to extreme temperature swings. When temperatures swing to very cold levels ($< 5^{\circ}\text{C}$) energy spending in high-income households rises by 1.2 percent but in low-income households by only 0.5 percent. On very hot days ($> 30^{\circ}\text{C}$) electricity spending in high-income households rises by 0.5 percent but does not change at all in low-income households. The latter result is observed even in subsamples where all households have AC. The implication is that even with widespread adoption of home heating and cooling systems, inability to afford energy leaves low-income households exposed to weather extremes.

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11 CLIMATE CHANGE, THE ECONOMY AND THE SOCIAL COST OF CARBON

Chapter summary

Economists have long considered climate a relatively unimportant factor in economic growth, a view echoed by the IPCC itself in the AR5. Mainstream climate economics has recognized that CO₂-induced warming may have some negative economic effects but they are too small to justify aggressive abatement policy, and trying to “stop” or cap global warming even at levels well above the Paris target would be worse than doing nothing. An influential study in 2012 suggested that global warming would harm growth in poor countries but the finding has subsequently been found not to be robust. Studies that take full account of modeling uncertainties either find no evidence of a negative effect on global growth from CO₂ emissions or find poor countries as likely to benefit from it as rich countries.

Social Cost of Carbon (SCC) estimates are highly uncertain due to unknowns in future economic growth, socioeconomic pathways, discount rates, climate damages, and system responses. The SCC is not intrinsically informative as to the economic or societal impacts of climate change. It provides an index connecting large networks of assumptions about the climate and the economy to a dollar value. Some assumptions yield a high SCC and others yield a low or negative SCC (i.e. a social benefit of emissions). The evidence for or against the underlying assumptions needs to be established independently; the resulting SCC adds no additional information about the validity of those assumptions. Consideration of potential tipping points at present does not justify major revisions to SCC estimates.

11.1 Climate change and economic growth

11.1.1 Overview: climate is a relatively minor issue for a modern economy

It has long been noted that economies tend to do poorly in very cold and very hot regions, with the optimum somewhere in between (Nordhaus, 2006). Temperature-sensitive economic activity migrates, whenever possible, to where it is best suited, and society always adapts to the local climate. Based in part on these observations, in 1992 Thomas Schelling, then President of the American Economic Association, argued that any effects of climate change on US economic activity would be small relative to the many other changes that would happen.

... Manufacturing rarely depends on climate, and where temperature and humidity used to make a difference, air conditioning has intervened. When Toyota chooses among Ohio, Alabama, and Southern California for locating an automobile assembly, geographical considerations are important, but not because of climate... Finance is little affected by climate; similarly for health care, or education, or broadcasting. Transportation can be affected, but improvements in all-weather landing and take-off in the last 30 years are greater than any differences that climate makes. If the average effect is a warming, iced waterways and snow removal may decline in importance. Construction is affected, mainly by cold, and if the average effect is in the direction of warming, construction may benefit slightly.

It is really agriculture that is affected. But even if agricultural productivity declined by a third over the next half century, the per capita GNP we might have achieved by 2050 we would achieve only in 2051. ...

I conclude that in the United States, and probably Japan, Western Europe, and other developed countries, the impact on economic output will be negligible and unlikely to be noticed.

(Schelling 1992, emphasis added)

Thirty years later virtually the identical point was made by the IPCC itself in the Fifth Assessment Report:

For most economic sectors, the impact of climate change will be small relative to the impacts of other drivers. Changes in population, age, income, technology, relative prices, lifestyle, regulation, governance, and many other aspects of socioeconomic development will have an impact on the supply and demand of economic goods and services that is large relative to the impact of climate change.

(Arent et al. 2014, emphasis added)

That statement is validated by experience. Since 1900, the average global surface temperature anomaly warmed 1.3°C, about as much as the IPCC predicts will occur in the next century under a moderate emissions scenario. But even as the globe warmed and the population quintupled, humanity prospered as never before. For example, global average lifespan went from thirty-two years to seventy-two years, economic activity per capita grew by a factor of seven, and the death rate from extreme weather events plummeted by a factor of fifty!

While extreme weather events are costly, in all modern economies they are becoming steadily less and less important (Formetta and Feyen, 2019). Since 1990 weather-related disaster losses have declined as a proportion of global GDP (Pielke Jr, 2018, 2020) as have mortality risks (Formetta and Feyen, 2019). While economic weather-related insurance payouts are rising, this is fully explained by the growth in the size of the economy and the value of the insured asset stock. Past increases in episodes extreme weather have not had a significant effect (positive or negative) on the market value of insurance firms (Hu and McKittrick, 2015). Nor have past extreme weather events had a significant effect on US banks' performance (Blickle et al., 2021). The following chart is illustrative:

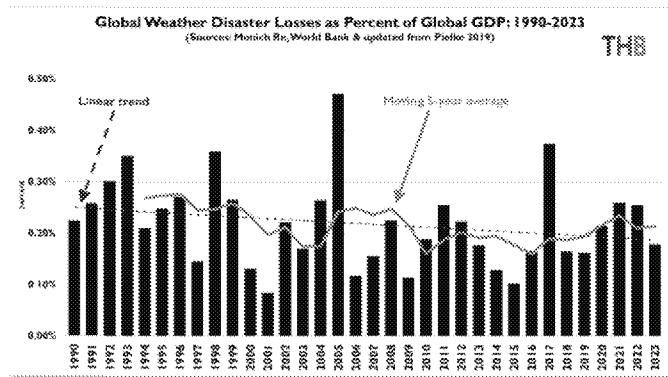


Figure 11.1 Global weather losses as a fraction of GDP. Source: Pielke Jr. (2023)

For these reasons, economists have long been reluctant to endorse attempts to “stop” climate change or even aggressively reduce GHG emissions because the costs would not be worth it. As one critic of the economics of climate policy put it:

Mainstream climate economics takes global warming seriously, but perplexingly concludes that the optimal economic policy is to almost do nothing about it ... The contrast is striking. While climate science is sending out loud-and-clear messages that fossil-fuel disinvestment must start now, letting go of coal and oil and diverting resources into renewable energy technology systems, to keep warming below the 2°C limit (IPCC 2014), mainstream climate economics claims that overly ambitious climate targets will unnecessarily hurt the economy and immediate de-carbonization is too expensive. Most climate economists thus recommend humanity to just wait-and-see.

(Storm 2017)

The mainstream economics position on the climate policy question is best represented by the findings over the past three decades from Integrated Assessment Models (IAMs) of climate change policy, for which Yale economist William Nordhaus was awarded the 2018 Nobel Memorial Prize in economics. IAMs combine economic, climate, and social data into a unified framework for simulating climate damages and evaluating the optimal policy response (Resources for the Future, 2025). Nordhaus’ work has generally supported modest global climate policy, with aggressive measures largely deferred to later in the century. Nordhaus developed the so-called Dynamic Integrated Model of the Climate and Economy model, or DICE, in the early 1990s (Nordhaus, 1993) to study the interaction between climate change, climate policy, and global economic growth over long times. DICE assumes global emission control can be coordinated at no cost and asks what the optimal policy target should be. The climate component of the DICE model is based on simplified climatological modeling. The version of DICE at the time of Nordhaus’ Nobel Prize award was described in Nordhaus (2018); it had a climate sensitivity parameter of 3.1°C for CO₂ doubling, consistent with the best estimate in contemporary IPCC reports (3.0°C).

The baseline (no policy) scenario incurs only \$0.4T in global abatement costs and leads to \$134.2T (trillion dollars) in global climate damages for a total cost of \$134.6T. The climate model component of DICE projects 4.1°C warming by 2100 relative to preindustrial temperatures. Note that this is a higher estimate of warming than many IPCC climate models.

The Optimal Policy scenario barely deviates from the business-as-usual path. It aims for +3.5°C warming, in other words we modestly scale back fossil fuel use and otherwise just live with almost all the warming. This suggests that most CO₂ emissions are less harmful than the policies that would be necessary to abate them. Trying to prevent warming causes costs quickly to outstrip the benefits. Pursuing a goal of capping warming at 2.5°C creates total costs of \$177.8T, which is \$43.2T worse than doing nothing at all. Nordhaus didn't evaluate trying to reach a Paris-type target of 1.5°C warming but it would be even worse.

A subsequent edition of DICE includes higher assumed damages from warming which, not surprisingly leads to more aggressive policy recommendations, as explained in the section below on the Social Cost of Carbon.

11.1.2 Empirical analysis of climate change and economic growth

Many other studies have used econometric methods applied to historical data, instead of IAMs, to study the potential impact of climate change on economic growth. Dell et al. (2012, herein DJO12) was an influential study that used a multi-country panel of national-level data spanning 1950 to 2005, in which they matched climate and economic data by averaging temperature from the local grid cell level up to the national level using population weights. They found that warming yields an insignificant positive effect on income growth in rich countries but a significant negative effect in poor countries. Moore and Diaz (2015) modified the DICE model to take that finding into account and concluded that it implied a dramatically higher Social Cost of Carbon due to the compounding effects of income loss over time.

A large subsequent literature has debated the robustness of the DJO12 findings. Burke et al. (2015) analyzed a global panel with temperatures averaged up to the national level and found a negative effect on growth from warming in rich and poor countries alike when the national average temperature is above 13°C. Zhao et al. (2018) used the G-Econ data set of Nordhaus (2006), which breaks economic activity down to the grid cell level, replicated DJO12-type results on the same subset of countries as used in DJO12 but then showed that on the full global sample warming increases growth in rich countries and poor countries alike, though the positive effect in the latter group is confined to where local temperatures are below about 16°C. Greßer et al. (2021) developed a regional economic dataset for 1,542 sub-national regions around the world between 2005 and 2015 and found temperature had no effect on growth. Yang et al. (2023) updated the DJO12 data set and applied an estimator robust to mixed sample frequencies, finding that while temperature shocks exerted a temporary effect on income levels, they did not have a significant lasting effect on growth rates.

Newell et al. (2021) noted that there is no underlying theory to guide econometric model specification in this literature. Taking into account the arbitrary choices of which explanatory variables to include they identified over 800 possible model specifications. Using the Burke et al. (2015) data they used an estimation method that accounts for model uncertainty and found that the model form preferred by Burke et al. (2015), which implied negative effects of warming on growth even in rich countries, is explicitly excluded by the optimal model selection algorithm. Overall they could not detect a temperature effect on GDP or GDP growth, and they estimated the 95% confidence interval for the impact on global growth as of 2100 even under the exaggerated RCP8.5 warming scenario spans -86 percent to +388 percent. In other words the net effect is likely positive but too uncertain to distinguish from zero.

Barker (2023) criticized the DJO12 assumption that countries can be grouped into fixed “poor” and “rich” categories based on their incomes many decades ago. He noted that many countries were once poor but became rich over time, and if this is taken into account the original temperature effects reported by Dell et al. became small and insignificant.

Berg et al. (2023) argued that countries shouldn’t be grouped into large Rich/Poor categories because they are too heterogeneous. They instead estimated country-specific temperature response coefficients then grouped countries with similar response coefficients into small panels. They separately estimated responses to global and idiosyncratic local temperature shocks to better identify the climate signal in weather data. Overall they found countries experiencing negative effects of warming on growth outnumbered those experiencing positive effects, but only temporarily: eventually the effects reverse such that about twice as many countries experience a net positive growth effect. They also found global (as opposed to local) temperature changes are much more likely to benefit growth in poor countries than rich ones. In a simulation to 2100 even using the extreme RCP8.5 scenario they computed the average global GDP loss would be only 1.9% compared to a scenario with no warming. That is, instead of the economy growing 400% it would grow 398%. The implication of Nordhaus’ earlier analysis is that trying to prevent the warming would lead to far less than 398% growth.

To summarize, economists have long considered climate a relatively unimportant factor in economic growth, a view echoed by the IPCC itself in the Fifth Assessment Report. Mainstream climate economics has recognized that CO₂-induced warming may have some negative economic effects but they are too small to justify aggressive abatement policy, and trying to “stop” or cap global warming even at levels well above the Paris target would be worse than doing nothing. An influential study in 2012 suggested that global warming would harm growth in poor countries but the finding has subsequently been found not to be robust. Studies that take full account of modeling uncertainties either find no evidence of a negative effect on global growth from CO₂ emissions or find poor countries as likely to benefit from it as rich countries.

The expectation that significant global warming would have a small impact on the U.S. economy was acknowledged quietly by the Biden Administration, even as the President was proclaiming a climate emergency. Figure 11.2, from a 2023 OMB-CEA report, shows the expected decrement in U.S. GDP as a function of temperature rise. The colored lines show the results of a dozen peer-reviewed published studies while the solid black line is their average. The figure could be summarized as “a few percent impact for a few degrees of warming”. Given that the economy’s annual growth rate is expected to be 1-2 percent, the impact of a warming globe is indeed negligible.

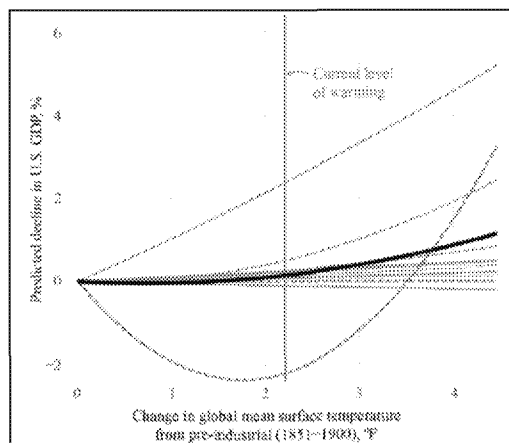


Figure 11.2: Decline in US GDP per degree of warming. Source: XX

11.2 Models of the Social Cost of Carbon

The Social Cost of Carbon (SCC) is a tool for quantifying the economic impact of carbon dioxide emissions, helping policymakers weigh the costs and benefits of climate policies. It estimates the damage caused by emitting one additional ton of CO₂, expressed in dollars. More formally, the SCC is the discounted present value of the current and future marginal loss of economic welfare due to an additional ton of CO₂ entering the atmosphere.

11.2.1 Estimating the SCC

Although the literature refers to “estimates” of the SCC, it is not estimated in the way other economic statistics are estimated. For instance, data on market transactions including prices and quantities can be used to estimate the current inflation rate or the growth rate of per capita real Gross Domestic Product, and there are well-understood uncertainties associated with these quantities. But there are no market data available to measure many if not most of the marginal damages or benefits believed to be associated with CO₂ emissions, so these need to be imputed using economic models.

For example, an influential component of some SCC calculations is the perceived social cost associated with changed risk of future mortality due to extreme weather. There is no market in which people can directly attach a price to that risk. At best economists can try to infer such values by looking at transactions in related markets such as real estate or insurance, but isolating the component of price changes attributable to atmospheric CO₂ levels is very difficult.

Economists use IAMs to compute the SCC. Two of the best known are the Climate Framework for Uncertainty, Negotiation and Distribution (“FUND”, Tol 1997) and Nordaus’ DICE. IAMs embed a “damage function” or set of functions relating ambient temperature to local economic conditions. The assumptions embedded in the damage function will largely determine the resulting SCC. IAMs also assume a long-term discount rate or, as in DICE, compute the optimal internal discount rate as part of the solution.

One approach to developing a damage function is to begin with estimates of the costs (or benefits) of warming in specific sectors in countries around the world and aggregate up to a global amount. This was the approach used in FUND. An alternative approach is to develop a simple equation that penalizes global income according to a simple quadratic function of the average global temperature. This approach was used in DICE. In the case of the FUND model many hundreds of parameters had to be selected, whereas in DICE only three were needed and were originally chosen to assign a predetermined penalty (1.2%) to global output as of 3°C warming, with a quadratic term implying that damages grow with the square of the global average temperature anomaly. Barrage and Nordhaus (2024) recently changed the parameters to increase the penalty at 3°C to 1.6%, and added a discrete additional 1.0% GDP penalty at 3°C warming to account for “tipping points” (discrete large-scale environmental changes triggered by crossing a warming threshold) and a “judgmental adjustment” of 0.5% for excluded impacts at 3°C warming. Not surprisingly the newer version of DICE generates much higher SCC estimates than before.

The concepts of estimation and uncertainty do not readily apply to SCC calculations. By comparison, the question of whether precipitation has trended up or down along the South Carolina coast for the past hundred years can be addressed by collecting rainfall data, estimating a trend parameter and calculating statistical confidence intervals using methods with well-understood mathematical properties. In this way uncertainty can, in principle, be resolved by collecting more data and applying more accurate methods. But no amount of data collection can change the fact that many components of the SCC are unknown and rely on judgment and opinion based on knowledge of the underlying literature on the physical effects of climate change.

SCC calculations are thus best thought of as “if-then” statements: *if* the following assumptions hold, *then* the SCC is \$X per tonne. The list of “if” statements includes the premise that the world’s climate and economy work according to the representation in the IAM. One way this may fail to hold is in the timing of warming. Every IAM assumes a value of the Equilibrium Climate Sensitivity (ECS), which controls the amount of warming that results from CO₂ emissions and can be freely varied for the purpose of generating a distribution of SCC values associated with uncertainties over ECS. But as Roe and Baumann (2013) pointed out, time-to-equilibrium increases with the square of ECS, so an upward adjustment of the ECS parameter without an appropriate slowing down of the adjustment process can yield distorted present value damage estimates. In particular, the upper tail of warming associated with some commonly-used ECS distributions is physically impossible for even a thousand years into the future (Roe and Baumann 2013) yet in an IAM would be realized within a couple of centuries. Failure to align ECS with time-to-equilibrium will lead to an overestimate of the SCC value.

11.2.2 Variations in the SCC

Every level of the IAM calculation includes assumptions, some more influential than others. Key assumptions include the following.

- The discount rate: Climate damages accrue over a long time horizon, and costs a century or two in the future need to be discounted to the present. The higher the discount rate the smaller the present value of future damages and vice versa. The discount rate represents the opportunity cost of spending money today rather than investing it and then having more to spend tomorrow. Some economists have argued for the use of very low discount rates in SCC calculations, resulting in policy recommendations that favor relatively large immediate investments in CO₂ emission reductions. The downside is that other investments could potentially earn a larger rate of return for society.

- **Equilibrium Climate Sensitivity:** IAMs have customarily employed a value of 3.0°C or 3.1°C following the IPCC’s guidance. Empirically-estimated ECS values tend to be lower than this (see Chapter 9). Dayaratna et al. (2017, 2020, 2023) have shown that use of lower empirically-derived ECS values dramatically lower the resulting SCC estimate, even when low discount rates are used.
- **Damage function coefficients:** IAMs assume CO₂ and warming cause net harms that increase exponentially with temperature. More recently, IAMs have also incorporated effects from assumed potential climate tipping points. The FUND model took limited but explicit account of CO₂ fertilization effects in agriculture. Since the coefficients were selected prior the publication of the current evidence of global greening and the magnitude of benefits to crops from elevated CO₂ (see Chapters 2 and 10) the growth effects are likely understated. The DICE model (and others) did not explicitly include any CO₂ fertilization benefit, except to the extent it was taken into account in the literature consulted when picking the damage function coefficients. The damage function in FUND contains a region in which low warming yields net benefits in many regions, a finding which is supported by econometric models of warming and growth (Berg et al. 2023) and econometric simulations of agricultural changes (McKittrick 2025). The DICE damage function, by construction, rules out net benefits at any warming level.
- **Emission scenarios:** IAMs generate SCC estimates that increase as the pre-existing concentration of CO₂ increases. Consequently the value of damages later in the century will be higher, depending on the assumed baseline emissions over the coming decades.
- **Abatement costs:** IAMs represent the cost to the economy of reducing CO₂ emissions. If CO₂ emission reductions are assumed to be inexpensive, then the model will conclude that the optimal policy should aim for deeper emission cuts and vice versa.

It is informative to ascertain whether SCC results are invariant to changes in some assumptions. But when different assumptions result in higher or lower SCC values, the change in the SCC value does not provide *prima facie* evidence about the validity of the assumptions. For example, in 2023 the US Environmental Protection Agency raised its preferred SCC value about 5-fold over the estimates it had issued ten years earlier. This is not because new data had been collected or better mathematical methods had been invented, but because new assumptions had been used, and the validity of those assumptions was a separate question. One was that global agricultural damages were far higher than previously assumed, based on an analysis in Moore et al. (2017). But as discussed in Chapter 10, McKittrick (2025) showed that Moore et al. (2017) had used a database in which half the CO₂ change observations were missing. When as many of those observations as possible were recovered from underlying sources and the analysis was rerun, the projected crop yield losses disappeared and turned into gains at all warming levels. Hence the portion of the EPA’s SCC revision attributable to agricultural yield losses was unwarranted.

11.2.3 Evidence for low SCC

Chapter 2 reviewed evidence on climate change and greening, and Chapter 10 looked at climate change and US agriculture. Evidence shows that CO₂ fertilization has a stronger beneficial effect on agriculture than was known at the time that IAMs like DICE and FUND were parameterized. In particular Haverd et

al. (2020) found the observed CO₂ fertilization rate has been almost double what had been predicted by crop models. Dayaratna et al. (2023) used the updated empirical ECS distribution estimate of Lewis (2022), which assimilates modern instrumental and paleoclimatic temperature records, and allowed for a 30 percent gain in the CO₂ fertilization benefit in the FUND model, and found that, even at a low discount rate of 2.5 percent, the median SCC as of 2050 is only \$18.67, with a 24 percent probability of the true value being negative. At a five percent discount rate the median SCC value is negative until the mid-2040s and at 2050 was only \$0.37 with a 49 percent probability of being negative. Thus, under reasonable assumptions a mainstream IAM using updated scientific inputs yields evidence consistent with the SCC not being significantly greater than zero.

It should also be noted that the SCC is focused on the social costs of CO₂ emissions from fossil fuel use. It does not measure the private marginal benefits to consumers and society from the availability of fossil fuels. Public willingness to pay for fuels of all types indicates the value to society of reliable, abundant fossil energy. Tol (2017) estimates that the private benefit of carbon is large relative to the social cost. This can be illustrated by noting that the price of a gallon of gas indicates the marginal value to the consumer of the fuel. Suppose we assume a relatively high Social Cost of Carbon of, say, \$75 per tonne. Deflated by a MCPF value of 1.5 that would result in a carbon tax of \$50 per tonne, which equates to about 44 cents per gallon of gas (Lavelle, 2019). A pre-tax price of \$3.00 per gallon would imply the marginal social benefit of the fuel is nearly seven times the marginal social cost.

11.2.4 Tipping points

SCC calculations typically consider gradual impacts of a warming climate, such as slowly-melting glaciers and increasing average temperature. A driver of potentially high values of the Social Cost of Carbon (SCC) is the introduction into models of discrete catastrophic outcomes associated with abrupt changes (Dietz et al., 2021). They are often referred to as “tipping points.”

The term “tipping point” mingles two different physical concepts that pose different research challenges. Many physical systems are inherently stable unless acted upon with sufficient external energy. For example an ice cap might remain intact over a wide range of temperatures but once the temperature crosses the 0°C threshold it melts. Such discontinuities are ubiquitous in nature and require an external force. Whether the force needs to be large relative to the size of the system depends on the underlying stability of the system.

A different type of tipping point is called a *bifurcation* and arises from the study of the internal dynamics of nonlinear systems (Crawford, 1991). Many systems have been observed to have more than one equilibrium point and can move between them with minimal or no external influence. For example a weather system might have two different equilibrium states: one calm and one with a tornado. A transition from one to another can happen either with no external force or with a minuscule change, such as a flap of the proverbial butterfly’s wings (Shen et al. 2014). The term “tipping point” is sometimes used to mean a bifurcation of this type and implies instability inherent in the system itself, which is not necessarily dependent on outside forces. It depends, instead, on parameters of the system taking values that support the emergence of bifurcations (Crawford, 1991).

The two different concepts imply different research questions. Regarding the first we are interested in whether components of the climate system are susceptible to abrupt discontinuities in response to sufficiently-large anthropogenic forcing. Regarding the second we are interested in whether the Earth’s climate system has inherent bifurcations that imply the possibility of abrupt transitions with or without external forcing.

Models have been developed that imply the latter is a possibility. Kypke et al. (2020) presented a simple climate model in which the GHG concentration is one of the parameters that controls the emergence of

bifurcations of the Arctic climate to one with both cold and warm equilibria. If sufficiently high GHG forcing combined with a sufficiently high rate of ocean heat transport are imposed a bifurcation becomes possible. More generally GCMs have been observed to contain bifurcations and multiple equilibria (Brunetti and Ragon, 2023).

The possible existence of bifurcations in the Earth's climate system implies abrupt transitions are possible, not just in response to large forcing but to small perturbations as well. This places tipping points into the category of low-likelihood and potentially catastrophic events, such as large meteor strikes. A key question to ask is whether those kinds of tipping points can be predicted. Current research has not resolved that question (Dakos et al., 2024) and indeed may not be able to since one implication of the "butterfly effect" is the existence of predictability boundaries of nonlinear systems (Palmer et al., 2014). It is therefore not obvious how to incorporate such possibilities into SCC calculations. Small variations in assumptions will lead to arbitrarily large variations in the resulting SCC with no grounds for choosing among them. If such tipping points are possible the most appropriate stance for economic policy is to maximize resilience to any form of external catastrophe since it is unlikely we could predict or prevent it from happening.

The IPCC AR6 (Chapter 1) focuses mainly on the first type of tipping point, namely an abrupt change in response to external forcing. This is also the meaning associated with popular usage of the "tipping point" concept in discussions of climate change (see [[HYPERLINK "https://report-2023.global-tipping-points.org/what-is-a-tipping-point/"](https://report-2023.global-tipping-points.org/what-is-a-tipping-point/)] for example). As summarized by the IPCC AR6, there is evidence of abrupt change in the paleoclimate record, and some of these events have been interpreted as tipping points. Some projections with Earth System Models for example have produced tipping points such as Amazon forest dieback in response to specified values of CO₂ concentration or temperature increases.

The alarm surrounding climate tipping points is reflected by *The Global Tipping Points Report* that was launched at the COP28 on 6 December 2023 (Lenton et al., 2023). It identifies more than 25 parts of the climate system said to constitute tipping points. What gets classified as a climate "tipping point" is a moving target. The most common examples in the literature and assessment reports include: Greenland ice sheet disintegration, West Antarctic ice sheet disintegration, summertime disappearance of Arctic sea ice, Amazon rainforest dieback, coral reef dieoff, thawing of permafrost and methane hydrates, Atlantic Meridional Overturning Circulation collapse, boreal forest shift, West African monsoon shift, and Indian Monsoon shift.

All such tipping points require a certain amount of system instability in order to exhibit an abrupt transition in response to warming. For this reason there seems to be very little to discriminate between a tipping event and natural climate variability. Natural climate variability has in the past produced shifts in the West African and Indian monsoons, Amazon forest and coral reef dieback, and disintegration of the Greenland and West Antarctic ice sheets. These impacts can be reversed on the decadal timescales associated with natural climate variability and ecosystem responses.

Some abrupt changes are potentially more consequential, including collapse of the West Antarctic ice sheet and collapse of the Atlantic Meridional Overturning Circulation (AMOC). The IPCC AR6 WGI Summary for Policy Makers states:

"The Atlantic Meridional Overturning Circulation is very likely to weaken over the 21st century for all emission scenarios. While there is high confidence in the 21st century decline, there is only low confidence in the magnitude of the trend. There is medium confidence that there will not be an abrupt collapse before 2100." (C.3.4)

"There is limited evidence for low-likelihood, high-impact outcomes (resulting from ice-sheet instability processes characterized by deep uncertainty and in some cases involving tipping

points) that would strongly increase ice loss from the Antarctic Ice Sheet for centuries under high GHG emissions scenarios (e.g., SSP5-8.5)." (B.5.2)

For the purpose of SCC calculations the research question implied by this type of tipping point is whether such events have been observed in the past in climate conditions similar to what we currently experience or will in the near future. The IPCC AR6 finds little evidence for impending collapse of the Atlantic Meridional Overturning Circulation or the West Antarctic ice sheet. It finds there is no tipping point associated with Arctic Sea ice (AR6 Technical Summary p. 76)

Dietz et al. incorporated several potential tipping points (abrupt changes) into an SCC model and found they added about 25 percent to the estimate, mainly associated with thawing permafrost and release of methane hydrates. However the IPCC considers this scenario *very unlikely* (AR6 Technical Summary p. 107).

In summary, there may be unknown bifurcation tipping points that are associated with natural climate processes, but this possibility does not translate into specific guidance on the SCC. There are potential abrupt change points in the climate system in response to warming, although the IPCC assigns low probabilities to most, including the largest ones. When these have been taken into account the result is only a modest increase in the SCC value in the 21st century.

11.2.5 Are there alternatives?

It is increasingly being argued that the SCC is too variable to be useful for policymakers. Cambridge Econometrics (Thoung, 2017) stated it's "time to kill it" due to uncertainties. The UK and EU no longer use SCC for policy appraisal, opting for "target-consistent" carbon pricing (UK Department for Energy Security and Net Zero 2022, Dunne 2017). However the uncertainty of SCC estimates doesn't mean that other regulatory measures are inherently better or more efficient. Many emissions regulations (such as electric vehicle mandates, renewable energy mandates, energy efficiency regulations and bans on certain types of home appliances) cost far more per tonne of abatement than any mainstream SCC estimate which is sufficient for establishing they fail a cost-benefit test.

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12 GLOBAL CLIMATE IMPACTS OF U.S. EMISSIONS POLICIES

Chapter Summary

U.S. policy actions are expected to have undetectably small direct impacts on the global climate and any effects will emerge only with long delays.

12.1 The scale problem

The emissions rates and atmospheric concentrations of criteria air contaminants are closely connected because their lifetimes are short and their concentrations are small; when local emissions are reduced the local pollution concentration drops rapidly, usually within a few days. But the global average CO₂ concentration behaves very differently, since emissions mix globally and the global carbon cycle is vast and slow. Any change in local CO₂ emissions today will have only a very small global effect, and only with a long delay.

Following the emission of a pulse (release) of CO₂ into the atmosphere only about 40 ± 15 percent of the emitted CO₂ will have been sequestered after twenty years. That fraction rises to 75 ± 10 percent after a thousand years, and the remainder will be gradually removed over the ensuing tens of thousands of years (Ciais et al., 2013, pp. 472-473). Consequently, any reduction in U.S. emissions would only modestly slow, but not prevent, the rise of global CO₂ concentration. And even if global emissions were to stop tomorrow, it takes decades or centuries to see a meaningful reduction in the global CO₂ concentration and hence human influences on the climate.

Reducing the atmospheric stock of CO₂ would require emissions to fall below the natural sequestration rate, assuming the entire increase is anthropogenic. Since that rate has been averaging about 50% of emissions in recent decades, a reduction of global emissions by 50% would (at least temporarily) halt the rise in atmospheric CO₂. The 1997 Kyoto Protocol proposed to cap industrial nations' CO₂ emissions at a modest five percent below 1990 levels by the year 2012. Even though this policy was too difficult for most nations to implement, full compliance would not have substantially reduced atmospheric CO₂ levels. It would only have slightly slowed CO₂ growth, reaching the projected year 2100 level in 2105 instead (Wigley, 1998). Lomborg (2016) estimated that full compliance with the Paris Accord would not stop warming, it would only prevent about 0.1C warming and delay hitting the baseline year 2100 temperature levels by about a decade.

Thus, in contrast with conventional air pollution control, even drastic local actions will have negligible local effects, and only with a long delay. The practice of referring to unilateral US reductions as “combatting climate change” or “taking action on climate” therefore reflects a profound misunderstanding of the scale of the issue.

12.2 Case study: US motor vehicle emissions

The scale problem can be illustrated with reference to U.S. motor vehicles. The EPA's 2009 Endangerment Finding focused on CO₂ emissions from cars and light-duty trucks in the U.S. because Section 202(a) of Clean Air Act mandates the EPA to set emissions standards for motor vehicles if pollutants are found to endanger public health or welfare. The 2009 Endangerment Finding therefore

obligated the EPA to regulate emissions from new motor vehicles, ostensibly to reduce or eliminate climate-related harms to the US public.

Two questions that naturally arise are: (1) How large a reduction in CO₂ emissions would result from such regulation? and (2) What would be the climate impact of such regulation?

The first question can be addressed by comparing US vehicle-based CO₂ emissions to the global total. The second question can be addressed by using the fact that the reduction in global warming would be, according to the models relied upon by the EPA, proportional to the reduction in global emissions, keeping in mind that the change in the CO₂ content of the atmosphere in any given year is the result of total global CO₂ emissions, not just U.S. emissions.

In 2022, the emissions from U.S. cars and light duty trucks totaled 1.05 billion metric tons of carbon dioxide (GtCO₂, EPA 2024). Meanwhile global CO₂ emissions from energy use totaled 34.6 GtCO₂ (Energy Institute 2024). Hence U.S. cars and light trucks account for only 3.0% of global energy-related CO₂ emissions. To a first approximation we can say that even eliminating all US vehicle-based emissions would change the multidecadal warming trend by at most 3%. For the period 1979-2023, which has the most extensive global coverage of a variety of weather data types, warming trends are determined to a precision of about $\pm 15\%$, so the impact of reducing the rate of global warming by eliminating U.S. vehicle CO₂ emissions would be far below the limits of measurability.

Given that global-average temperature is the most direct climate change metric, impacts on any secondary climate metrics (e.g. severe weather, floods, drought, etc.) from reducing U.S. vehicle CO₂ emissions would be even less measurable.

Consequently, in contrast to the case of local air contaminants like particulates and ozone, even the most aggressive regulatory actions on GHG emissions from U.S. vehicles cannot be expected to remediate alleged climate dangers to the US public on any even remotely-measurable scale.

References

EPA (2024) *Fast Facts: U.S. Transportation Sector Greenhouse Gas Emissions 1990-2022*. Available online at [HYPERLINK "<https://nepis.epa.gov/Exec/ZipPDF.cgi?Dockey=P101AKR0.pdf>"]

Energy Institute (2024) *Statistical Review of World Energy*. Available online at [HYPERLINK "<https://www.energyinst.org/statistical-review>"]

GLOSSARY

2XCO₂: Doubling of the atmospheric carbon dioxide (CO₂), a commonly used baseline for addressing climate change. In 2025, atmospheric CO₂ concentrations were approximately 50% of the way to 2XCO₂ compared to 1800.

ABATEMENT: In the context of environmental policy, the reduction of emissions.

ACE (Accumulated Cyclone Energy): A statistical measure of a tropical cyclone's energy accumulated over its lifetime, calculated from a summation of the square of maximum sustained wind speeds.

ACIDIFICATION: A commonly used term for the reduction in ocean pH from more alkaline to less alkaline values.

ACRIM (Active Cavity Radiometer Irradiance Monitor) GAP: the gap in total solar irradiance data between 1989 and 1991 caused by a delay in the launch of a satellite-borne monitor in time to overlap and intercalibrate with the prior system.

AEROSOLS: Tiny solid or liquid particles suspended in the air.

ALKALINE: Having a chemical pH greater than 7.0. The "opposite" of acidic, which means a pH less than 7.0.

AMBIENT: Relating to the immediate surroundings of something.

ANTHROPOGENIC: Created by humans.

AR (Assessment Reports): Periodic assessments published by the Intergovernmental Panel on Climate Change evaluating current knowledge of the climate system, global change, and associated issues. An AR now consists of reports from three working groups, the first (WG1) concerned with physical science and the others concerned with societal impacts and mitigation strategies. The most recent was the AR6.

ATTRIBUTION: Assertion of a causal relation, chiefly from anthropogenic GHG emissions to observed climate patterns.

AUTOCORRELATION: The phenomenon in which the current value of a random time series variable is correlated with its value in a previous time period.

BIOMASS: The total quantity or weight of organic matter in a given area or volume.

CARBON: The 6th element in the periodic table. Popularly used as a shorthand term for carbon dioxide.

CMIP (Coupled Model Intercomparison Project): The Intergovernmental Panel on Climate Change's organized effort to compare many different global ocean-atmosphere climate models when they are all forced with the same emissions scenario(s). The two most recent were the CMIP5 and CMIP6 for, respectively, AR5 and AR6.

CONUS: The contiguous 48 U.S. states.

DICE (Dynamic Integrated model of the Climate and Economy): An Integrated Assessment Model developed by William Nordhaus in 1993.

DISCOUNT RATE: The interest rate used to convert future costs and benefits into their present value. Varies inversely with present value so a high discount rate reduces the present value of future costs and benefits.

DRY ICE: Frozen carbon dioxide.

ECONOMETRICS: The branch of economics concerned with the use of statistical methods (chiefly multiple regression) to analyse economic systems.

ECS (Equilibrium Climate Sensitivity): The total amount of eventual global-average surface warming in response to a hypothetical doubling of the atmospheric CO₂ concentration compared to pre-Industrial levels.

EL NIÑO: The warm phase of the El Niño – Southern Oscillation, involving weaker upwelling of cold water off the South American coast and weaker Pacific trade winds.

EMISSIONS SCENARIO: An assumed scenario of future greenhouse gas emissions (or resulting atmospheric concentrations) based upon assumptions regarding global economic activity, the prevalence of fossil fuel use, and (sometimes) global carbon cycle model estimates of the rate of CO₂ uptake by land and ocean.

ENDANGERMENT FINDING(EF): The 2009 finding by the Administrator of the Environmental Protection Agency that emissions of well-mixed greenhouse gases (primarily CO₂) endanger human health and welfare.

ENSO: El Niño – Southern Oscillation, a prominent natural climate fluctuation involving year-to-year variations in the upwelling of cold water off the equatorial coast of South America and associated strengthening or weakening of trade winds across the Pacific Ocean.

FACE: (Free-Air CO₂ Enrichment) Large-scale open-air studies that expose plants to elevated CO₂ levels, simulating future climate scenarios.

FOSSIL FUEL: A natural hydrocarbon fuel such as coal, oil, or natural gas formed in the geological past from the remains of living organisms.

FUND (Framework for Uncertainty, Negotiation, and Distribution): An Integrated Assessment Model developed by Richard Tol in 1997.

GBR (Great Barrier Reef): The world's largest coral reef ecosystem located off the northeast coast of Australia.

GDP (Gross Domestic Product): Total market value of all the final goods and services produced within a country's border, usually over one year.

GHCN (Global Historical Climatology Network): A time-varying number of globally distributed weather stations making hourly, daily, or monthly measurements of precipitation, temperature and sometimes snowfall and snow depth.

GLOBAL GREENING: The satellite-observed increase in greenness in most vegetated land areas observed since the early 1980s.

GNP (Gross National Product): Total market value of all the final goods and services produced by the citizens of a country, including exports and imports, usually over one year.

GDP (Gross National Product): Total market value of all the domestically-produced final goods and services produced by the citizens of a country, usually over one year.

GREENHOUSE EFFECT (GHE): The tendency for any planetary atmosphere containing greenhouse gases to be warmer in the lowest layers than if those gases did not exist.

GREENHOUSE GAS (GHG): An atmospheric gas that absorbs and emits infrared radiation, especially water vapor, CO₂, and methane.

HURST PHENOMENON: See long term persistence.

HYDROLOGY: The study of the movement of water, especially on land and in the atmosphere.

IAM (Integrated Assessment Model): A computerized tool that combines economics, climate science, and social sciences to provide quantitative relationships between human and Earth systems, helping to inform policy decisions.

IEA (International Energy Agency): A Paris-based intergovernmental organization, established in 1974, that provides policy recommendations, analysis and data on the global energy sector.

IPCC (Intergovernmental Panel on Climate Change): A panel of international experts and governmental representatives established by the United Nations and World Meteorological Organization in 1988 to provide governments at all levels with scientific information that they can use to develop climate policies.

IR (Infrared): Heat radiation that all solid objects and greenhouse gases emit by virtue of their temperature.

LA NIÑA: The cool phase of ENSO, involving stronger upwelling of cold water off the South American coast and stronger Pacific trade winds.

LONG TERM PERSISTENCE (LTP, or HURST PHENOMENON): A form of autocorrelation in which random fluctuations induce long term but not permanent changes in the mean value of a series, which shows up in some climate data series as cyclical or trending patterns on short time scales.

MAIZE: Corn.

MODEL: A computer code or collection of codes which quantify our knowledge of various processes and the interactions between those processes.

MORTALITY: Death or number of deaths, usually expressed for a specific population and period.

NCA (National Climate Assessment): A periodic report mandated by the Global Change Research Act of 1990 summarizing the impact of climate change on the United States. There have been five NCA reports: NCA1 (2000), NCA2 (2009), NCA3 (2014), NCA4 (2017-18), and NCA5 (2023).

OECD (Organization for Economic Cooperation and Development): A group of 38 member countries that have a democratic system of government and free economic systems.

PALEOCLIMATE: Climate of the distant past, before modern weather instruments were widely used (typically pre-1850), necessitating the use of “proxy” measurements such as tree rings, ice core, pollen records, etc.

PDI (Power Dissipation Index): A statistical estimate of the accumulated destructive potential of a tropical cyclone over time, calculated as a summation of the cube of the maximum sustained wind speeds.

PHOTOSYNTHESIS: The process by which plants grow, requiring carbon dioxide, water, and light at sufficiently warm temperatures (10 to 35 deg. C for optimal function).

PPM: Parts per million, a measure of the concentration of a substance in (for example) the atmosphere

PRE-INDUSTRIAL: The near-term historical period before which human greenhouse gas emissions were considered significant, usually assumed to be the mid-1700s.

RADIATIVE FEEDBACK: A change in the balance between absorbed solar radiation and emitted infrared (IR) radiation, referenced to the top of the atmosphere, caused by changes in surface temperature.

RADIATIVE FORCING: The change in the balance between absorbed solar radiation and emitted infrared (IR) radiation, referenced to the top of the atmosphere, caused by changes in greenhouse gases, anthropogenic aerosols, volcanoes, etc.

RCP (Representative Concentration Pathway) SCENARIOS: Different scenarios for future greenhouse gas emissions and their impact on the atmosphere, introduced in the IPCC’s Fifth Assessment Report (AR5). RCP scenarios have a number label (e.g. RCP6.0) indicating how much radiative forcing they

assume in 2100 relative to pre-Industrial times, in Watts per square meter. RCP4.5 and RCP6.0 are intermediate scenarios, whereas RCP8.5 is an extreme scenario with very large future emissions of greenhouse gases.

REGRESSION: A statistical method for selecting the coefficients of a linear equation to explain the behaviour of a dependent variable in terms of variations in one or more explanatory variables.

RICARDIAN ANALYSIS: A method used in environmental economics named after David Ricardo to estimate the economic impacts of climate change, particularly on agriculture, by making use of the hypothesis that expected changes in the return to future agricultural activity will be capitalized into current land values.

SCC (Social Cost of Carbon): An estimate of the net economic damages, measured in present-value dollars, caused by emitting one additional ton of CO₂ into the atmosphere.

SSP (Shared Socioeconomic Pathway) SCENARIOS: Different scenarios for future greenhouse gas emissions and their impact on the atmosphere, introduced in the IPCC's Sixth Assessment Report (AR6). Some of the SSP scenarios are analogous to the older RCP scenarios, for purposes of continuity and comparison to earlier climate model assessments.

TC: Tropical cyclone.

TMAX: The daily maximum surface air temperature.

TMIN: The daily minimum surface air temperature.

TOA: Top of atmosphere.

TOXICOLOGY: The study of the adverse effects of chemical substances on living organisms.

TREND: A coefficient, usually estimated using linear regression, representing the slope of a line of best fit through a time series of data, indicating any tendency for the series mean to move up or down over time.

TSI (Total Solar Irradiance): The measure of the total amount of incident solar radiation per unit area, including all wavelengths of electromagnetic radiation, that reaches the Earth's atmosphere. Typically shown in units of watts per square meter (W/m²).

UHI (Urban Heat Island): The tendency for inhabited areas to be warmer than their rural surroundings, due to the replacement of natural land and vegetation with roads, parking lots, buildings, and waste heat sources.

USHCN: The U.S. Historical Climatology Network, consisting of quality-controlled temperature and precipitation data from 1,218 surface weather stations.

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John Christy, Ph.D. is the Distinguished Professor of Atmospheric and Earth Sciences and Alabama's State Climatologist at the University of Alabama in Huntsville. He has a B.A. (Mathematics) from CSU Fresno and an M.S. and Ph.D. (Atmospheric Sciences) from the University of Illinois in Urbana-Champaign. He is a Fellow of the American Meteorological Society and recipient of The NASA Medal for Exceptional Scientific Achievement for constructing, with Dr. Roy Spencer, the first global atmospheric temperature dataset from polar orbiting satellites. He served as Lead Author of the 3rd IPCC Assessment Report (2001), he has coauthored National Academy of Science expert reports on Climate Observations (1995) and Surface Temperature Reconstructions (2006), and he has served on the NOAA Climate Change Science Program, NASA's Earth Science Subcommittee, the National Research Council Space Studies Board and the EPA Science Advisory Board. In addition, Dr. Christy has given testimony in 20 Congressional Hearings.

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The Honorable Steven E. Koonin, Ph.D. is the Edward Teller Senior Fellow at Stanford's Hoover Institution. He has served as Under Secretary for Science at the Department of Energy (2009-2011), as Chief Scientist for BP (2004-2009), and as a professor at Caltech (1975–2004, the last nine years as Vice President and Provost). Koonin is a member of the National Academy of Sciences and the JASON group of government advisors, as well as a Governor of Lawrence Livermore National Laboratory, having served in similar capacities for the Los Alamos, Sandia, Brookhaven, and Argonne National Laboratories. Other prior roles include a University Professor at NYU, a non-resident Senior Fellow at AEI, and a Trustee of IDA.

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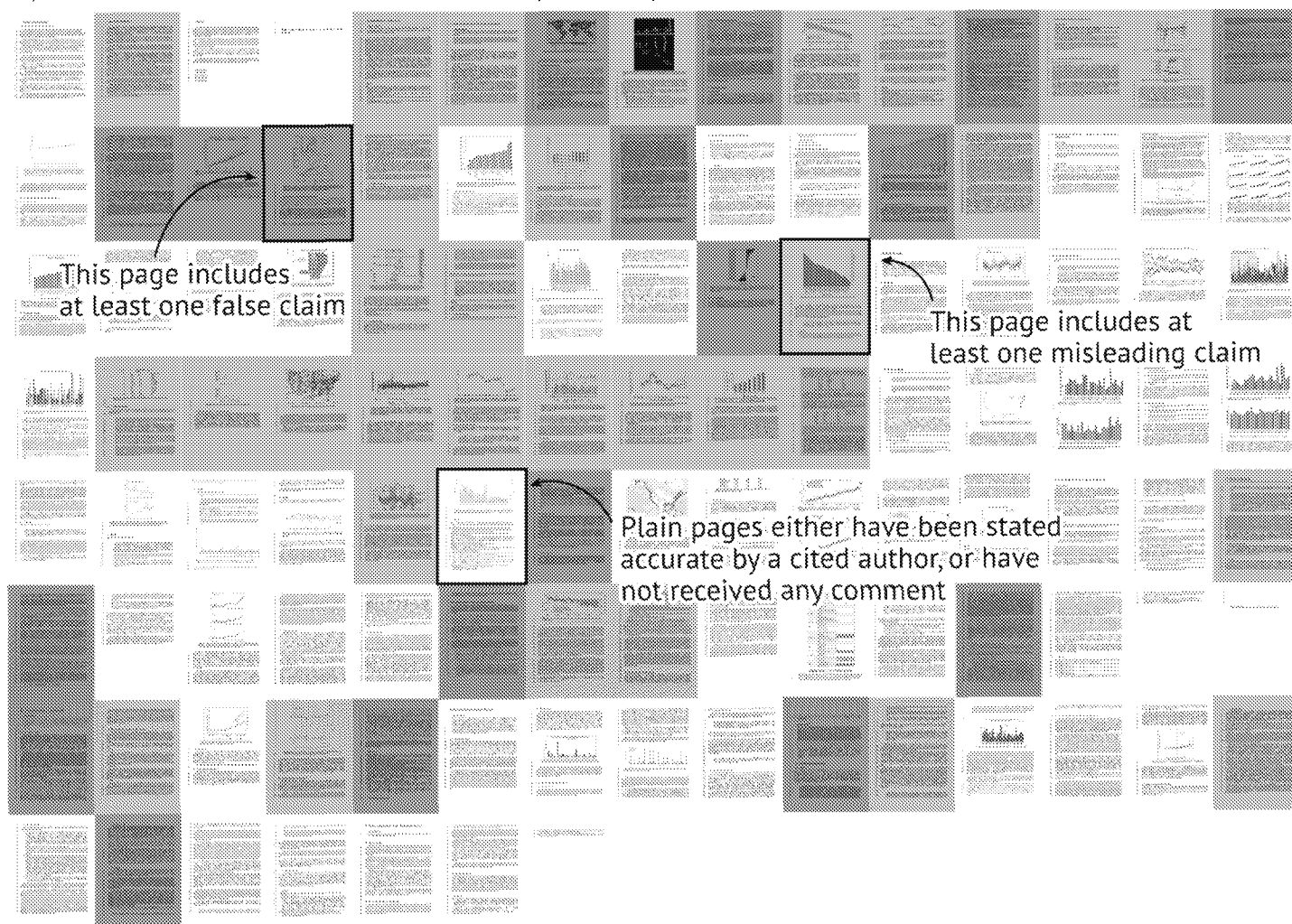
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Roy W. Spencer, Ph.D., is a Principal Research Scientist at the University of Alabama in Huntsville. He holds a BS in Atmospheric and Oceanic Science from the University of Michigan, and MS and PhD in Meteorology from the University of Wisconsin -Madison. Spencer's published research has focused on monitoring of weather processes and climate change from Earth-orbiting satellites, as well as using simple physical models for diagnosing climate sensitivity and climate feedbacks. As a NASA Senior Scientist for Climate Studies he served as the U.S. Science Team Leader for the Advanced Microwave Scanning Radiometer (AMSR-E) flying on the Aqua satellite, providing our most accurate global measurements of sea surface temperatures, sea ice, and several other features of the climate system. Along with Dr. John Christy, Spencer developed the first satellite-based technique for global temperature monitoring, for which they received NASA's Exceptional Scientific Achievement Medal and the American Meteorological Society's Special Award.

Factcheck: Trump's climate report includes more than 100 false or misleading claims

By [[HYPERLINK "https://www.carbonbrief.org/author/ayeshatandon/" \h](https://www.carbonbrief.org/author/ayeshatandon/)], [[HYPERLINK "https://www.carbonbrief.org/author/leohickman/" \h](https://www.carbonbrief.org/author/leohickman/)], [[HYPERLINK "https://www.carbonbrief.org/author/cecilia-keating/" \h](https://www.carbonbrief.org/author/cecilia-keating/)] and [[HYPERLINK "https://www.carbonbrief.org/author/robertmcsweeney/" \h](https://www.carbonbrief.org/author/robertmcsweeney/)] Design by [[HYPERLINK "https://www.carbonbrief.org/author/tomprater/" \h](https://www.carbonbrief.org/author/tomprater/)]

13 August 2025



Pages highlighted red contain false statements, whilst pages highlighted orange contain misleading statements. Pages can contain more than one false or misleading statement. Pages that remain uncoloured represent parts of the report that either have been stated as accurate by the cited author, or have not received any comment from invited experts. Front pages, reference and glossary pages omitted.

A “critical assessment” report commissioned by the Trump administration to justify a rollback of US climate regulations contains at least 100 false or misleading statements, according to a Carbon Brief factcheck involving dozens of leading climate scientists.

The 140-page report – “[[HYPERLINK](https://www.energy.gov/sites/default/files/2025-07/DOE_Critical_Review_of_Impacts_of_GHG_Emissions_on_the_US_Climate_July_2025.pdf) "https://www.energy.gov/sites/default/files/2025-07/DOE_Critical_Review_of_Impacts_of_GHG_Emissions_on_the_US_Climate_July_2025.pdf" \h] [[HYPERLINK](#)

"[https://www.energy.gov/sites/default/files/2025-](https://www.energy.gov/sites/default/files/2025-07/DOE_Critical_Review_of_Impacts_of_GHG_Emissions_on_the_US_Climate_July_2025.pdf)

[07/DOE_Critical_Review_of_Impacts_of_GHG_Emissions_on_the_US_Climate_July_2025.pdf](https://www.energy.gov/sites/default/files/2025-07/DOE_Critical_Review_of_Impacts_of_GHG_Emissions_on_the_US_Climate_July_2025.pdf)" – was published by the US Department of Energy (DoE) on 23 July, just days before the government laid out plans to revoke a scientific finding used as the legal basis for emissions regulation.

The executive summary of the controversial report inaccurately claims that “CO2-induced warming might be less damaging economically than commonly believed”.

It also states misleadingly that “excessively aggressive [emissions] mitigation policies could prove more detrimental than beneficial”.

Compiled in just two months by five “independent” researchers hand-selected by the [[HYPERLINK "https://www.bbc.co.uk/news/articles/c93qjdjwnxko" \h](https://www.bbc.co.uk/news/articles/c93qjdjwnxko)] US secretary of energy Chris Wright, the document has [[HYPERLINK "https://www.lemonde.fr/en/environment/article/2025/08/06/scientists-outraged-by-climate-skeptic-report-commissioned-by-trump-administration_6744121_114.html" \h](https://www.lemonde.fr/en/environment/article/2025/08/06/scientists-outraged-by-climate-skeptic-report-commissioned-by-trump-administration_6744121_114.html)] from climate scientists, who have pointed to factual errors, misrepresentation of research, messy citations and the cherry-picking of data.

Experts have also [[HYPERLINK "https://bsky.app/profile/andrewdessler.com/post/3lv5ofrb2e22g" \h](https://bsky.app/profile/andrewdessler.com/post/3lv5ofrb2e22g)] the authors’ track record of promoting views at odds with the mainstream understanding of climate science.

Wright’s department [[HYPERLINK "https://www.energy.gov/articles/department-energy-issues-report-evaluating-impact-greenhouse-gasses-us-climate-invites" \h](https://www.energy.gov/articles/department-energy-issues-report-evaluating-impact-greenhouse-gasses-us-climate-invites)] the report – which is currently open to public comment as part of a 30-day review – underwent an “internal peer-review period amongst [the] DoE’s scientific research community”.

The report is designed to provide a scientific underpinning to one flank of the

Trump administration's plans to [[HYPERLINK](#)

"<https://www.epa.gov/system/files/documents/2025-03/final-pager-endangerment.pdf>" \h] that serves as the legal prerequisite for federal emissions regulation. (The second flank is about [[HYPERLINK](#)

"<https://eelp.law.harvard.edu/epas-proposal-to-eliminate-the-endangerment-finding-and-motor-vehicle-greenhouse-gas-regulations/>" \h] [[HYPERLINK](#)

"<https://eelp.law.harvard.edu/epas-proposal-to-eliminate-the-endangerment-finding-and-motor-vehicle-greenhouse-gas-regulations/>" \h] to regulate emissions.)

The “[[HYPERLINK "https://www.epa.gov/climate-change/endangerment-and-cause-or-contribute-findings-greenhouse-gases-under-section-202a" \h \]”](#) — enacted by the [[HYPERLINK "http://news.bbc.co.uk/1/hi/sci/tech/8004975.stm" \h \]](#) in 2009 — states that six greenhouse gases are contributing to the net-negative impacts of climate change and, thus, put the public in danger.

In a [[HYPERLINK "https://www.epa.gov/newsreleases/epa-releases-proposal-rescind-obama-era-endangerment-finding-regulations-paved-way"](https://www.epa.gov/newsreleases/epa-releases-proposal-rescind-obama-era-endangerment-finding-regulations-paved-way) \h] on 29 July, the US Environmental Protection Agency said “updated studies and information” set out in the new report would “challenge the assumptions” of the 2009 finding.

Carbon Brief asked a wide range of climate scientists, including those cited in the “critical review” itself, to factcheck the report’s various claims and statements.

Flaws visualised

The responses can be explored below, with false statements highlighted in red and misleading statements shaded in orange. Any areas that remain uncoloured represent parts of the report that either have been stated as accurate by a cited author, or have not received any comment from invited experts.

The dropdown menu can be used to navigate to specific sections of the report.

Carbon Brief’s analysis also finds that, of the 350 references included in the report, almost 10% is work by the report’s own authors.

Executive summary

Amid the Trump administration’s [[HYPERLINK "https://www.commondreams.org/news/trump-attack-on-science"](https://www.commondreams.org/news/trump-attack-on-science) \h] on [[HYPERLINK "https://www.science.org/content/article/how-trump-administration-dismantling-science-u-s"](https://www.science.org/content/article/how-trump-administration-dismantling-science-u-s) \h], some contributors have

asked to be anonymised. The responses from scientists have been lightly edited **MISLEADING** for clarity and style.

Elevated concentrations of CO2 directly enhance plant growth, globally contributing to “greening” the planet and increasing agricultural productivity.

Contributors can be found towards the end of the article.

[HYPERLINK "https://profiles.stanford.edu/david-lobell" \h \]](https://profiles.stanford.edu/david-lobell),

associate professor, Stanford University

responded to Carbon Brief's request for comment at the time of going to press.

I see two main problems with this (very old) argument. The direct benefits of CO₂ are widely acknowledged and nothing new. But we know that elevated CO₂ leads to climate changes and so the question is whether the CO₂ benefits are big enough to offset the climate losses. Their report does not address the net effects, which many studies have shown are negative, even for the US. The numbers they cite for direct effects of CO₂ are mainly from co2science.org, which is not a reputable source. Their summaries are not peer reviewed and include many studies of pots in greenhouses which are known to be biased. The numbers cited in the report are more than 2x what the best literature shows, such as in Ainsworth & Long (2021).

Quote from [[HYPERLINK "https://science.feedback.org/review/misleading-u-s-department-energy-climate-report-chooses-bias-over-science-climate-scientists-say/" \h](https://science.feedback.org/review/misleading-u-s-department-energy-climate-report-chooses-bias-over-science-climate-scientists-say/)]

Supporting evidence

[[HYPERLINK "https://onlinelibrary.wiley.com/doi/abs/10.1111/gcb.15375" \h](https://onlinelibrary.wiley.com/doi/abs/10.1111/gcb.15375)]

Part I: Direct human influence on ecosystems and the climate

1 Carbon dioxide as a pollutant

Page 2

MISLEADING

The growing amount of CO₂ in the atmosphere directly influences the Earth system by promoting plant growth (global greening), thereby enhancing agricultural yields, and by neutralising ocean alkalinity.

Anonymous

This ignores other effects of rising CO2 concentrations, i.e.: on climate. It is also failing to mention that increased CO2 can reduce the nutrient density of some crops.

Quote given to Carbon Brief

Supporting evidence

[[HYPERLINK "https://www.ipcc.ch/report/ar6/wg2/chapter/chapter-5/"](https://www.ipcc.ch/report/ar6/wg2/chapter/chapter-5/) \h]

2.1 CO2 as a contributor to global greening

Page 3

FALSE

While plant models predict increased photosynthesis in response to rising CO2, Haverd et al. (2020) reported a CO2 fertilisation rate much larger than model predictions. That is, CO2 fertilisation had driven an increase in observed global photosynthesis by 30% since 1900, versus 17% predicted by plant models. If true it would indicate that global models of the socioeconomic impacts of rising CO2 have understated the benefits to crops and agriculture.

[[HYPERLINK "https://www.iri-thesys.org/people-pages/delphine-deryng-dr/"](https://www.iri-thesys.org/people-pages/delphine-deryng-dr/) \h], lead author, IPCC AR6 WG2

The paper by Haverd et al. focuses on natural ecosystems, not crops. So whilst the findings that CO2 fertilisation effects on global greening makes a larger share relative to other factors, the results are not directly transferable to the socio-economic impacts of rising CO2 on agriculture. Rising CO2 contributes to

higher radiative forcing which increases global mean temperature and accelerates the global water cycle, causing increases in the severity and frequency of extreme weather events (e.g. droughts, heat-stress and wildfires), particularly threatening crop yields and production.

Quote given to Carbon Brief

Supporting evidence

[[HYPERLINK "https://onlinelibrary.wiley.com/doi/10.1111/gcb.14950" \h](https://onlinelibrary.wiley.com/doi/10.1111/gcb.14950)]

2.1 CO2 as a contributor to global greening

Page 3

MISLEADING

The growing CO2 concentration in the atmosphere has the important positive effect of promoting plant growth by enhancing photosynthesis and improving water use efficiency.

Anonymous

Promoting plant growth is not always positive, because some species benefit more than others, which creates risks to biodiversity. For example, in tropical forests, elevated CO2 promotes the growth of lianas, which are parasites that threaten trees. Also increased CO2 fertilisation is playing a role in disrupting grassland and savannah ecosystems by promoting tree and shrub growth ("woody encroachment").

Quote given to Carbon Brief

Supporting evidence

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\h]

2.1 CO2 as a contributor to global greening

Page 3

FALSE

Section 2.1.1

Anonymous

The following section cites papers that are, in fact, showing evidence for other drivers of change, e.g. page 14 line 34 says "Piao et al. (2020) noted that greening was even observable in the Arctic", but Piao et al (2020) actually show that warming is the dominant driver of greening in the Arctic, not CO2 fertilisation (see figure 4 and associated text). Also the authors of the DoE report contradict their own statement two paragraphs later by saying: "Chen et al. (2019) show that in China and India much of it is driven by land management changes."

Quote given to Carbon Brief

Supporting evidence

[[HYPERLINK "https://www.nature.com/articles/s43017-019-0001-x"](https://www.nature.com/articles/s43017-019-0001-x) \I"Sec6" \h]

2 Direct impacts of CO2 on the environment

Page 3

MISLEADING

Piao et al. (2020) and Chen et al. (2024) report that the greening trend continues with no evidence of slowdown.

Anonymous

The DoE authors fail to mention another study which shows the opposite, that greening was reversed around the year 2000 over 90% of the global vegetated area.

Quote given to Carbon Brief

Supporting evidence

[[HYPERLINK "https://agupubs.onlinelibrary.wiley.com/doi/10.1029/2022EF002788"](https://agupubs.onlinelibrary.wiley.com/doi/10.1029/2022EF002788) \h]

2.1 CO2 as a contributor to global greening

Pages 14-17

MISLEADING

Section 2.1

[[HYPERLINK "https://www.agu.org/user-profile?cstkey=E0190A3A-0069-416C-8B0C-4048C7E69CB8"](https://www.agu.org/user-profile?cstkey=E0190A3A-0069-416C-8B0C-4048C7E69CB8) \h], retired atmospheric physicist

Chapters 2 and 9 assert that CO2 fertilisation will increase plant growth and crop yields. The proposed benefits of CO2 fertilisation are not realised in this set of DGVMs because this is only one of several mechanisms that control plant growth. As any farmer knows, plant growth is rarely limited by the abundance of the most abundant nutrient. It is usually limited by the abundance of the

least abundant nutrient. While increased CO₂ can accelerate plant growth in carefully controlled laboratory conditions, this rarely happens in nature or in large-scale agriculture. There, plant growth is usually limited by water, nitrogen, phosphorus, sunlight or temperature. These models include all of those effects. The range of outputs produced by the models reflects uncertainties in the relative roles of these processes and their potential evolution with climate change. This behaviour should foster serious concern (doubt) about the potential benefits of CO₂ fertilisation in a changing climate. There is no discussion of this here or in chapters 2.1 or 9.

Quote given to Carbon Brief

2.1 CO₂ as a contributor to global greening

Page 4

MISLEADING

Had atmospheric CO₂ levels continued declining, plant growth would have declined and eventually ceased. Below 180ppm, the growth rates of many C₃ species are reduced 40-60% relative to 350ppm (Gerhart and Ward (2010)) and growth has stopped altogether under experimental conditions of 60-140ppm CO₂. Some C₄ plants are still able to grow at levels even as low as 10ppm, albeit very slowly (Gerhart and Ward (2010)).

[[HYPERLINK "https://case.edu/provost/about/bio"](https://case.edu/provost/about/bio) \h], provost and executive vice president, Case Western Reserve University

“Ward, however, told WIRED in an emailed statement that her experiments were conducted under ‘highly controlled growth conditions’ to create a ‘mechanistic understanding’ of CO₂, and that climate change can cause a host of impacts on plants not accounted for in her study. ‘With rising CO₂ in natural ecosystems, plants may experience higher heat loads, extreme weather events such as droughts and floods and reduced pollinators – which can have severe net negative effects on plant growth and crop yields,’ she says. ‘Furthermore, our studies indicate that major disruptions in plant development such as flowering time can occur in direct response to rising CO₂, which were not mentioned in the report.’”

Quote from [[HYPERLINK "https://www.wired.com/story/scientists-say-new-government-climate-report-twists-their-work/"](https://www.wired.com/story/scientists-say-new-government-climate-report-twists-their-work/) \h]

2.1 CO₂ as a contributor to global greening

Page 4

FALSE

Piao et al. (2020) and Chen et al. (2024) report that the greening trend continues with no evidence of slowdown, and CO₂ fertilisation remains the dominant driver.

[[HYPERLINK "https://www.iri-thesys.org/people-pages/delphine-deryng-dr/"](https://www.iri-thesys.org/people-pages/delphine-deryng-dr/) \h], lead author, IPCC AR6 WG2

Chen et al (2024) does not back up this statement. In the abstract, the author concluded that greening, whilst still increasing, has slowed down: "Our study highlighted that drought trend did not necessarily trigger vegetation browning,

but slowed down the rate of greening." Piao et al. (2019) looked at the driver of

global greening. They did not look at whether trends in global greening are rising or decreasing. In addition they analysis focused on historical observation (1980-2010) and did not assess future trends.

Quote given to Carbon Brief

Supporting evidence

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2.1 CO2 as a contributor to global greening

Page 4

MISLEADING

Had atmospheric CO2 levels continued declining, plant growth would have declined and eventually ceased. Below 180ppm, the growth rates of many C3 species are reduced 40-60% relative to 350ppm (Gerhart and Ward (2010)) and growth has stopped altogether under experimental conditions of 60-140ppm CO2. Some C4 plants are still able to grow at levels even as low as 10ppm, albeit very slowly (Gerhart and Ward (2010)).

Anonymous

The decline in atmospheric CO2 levels over the last few tens of millions of years stopped naturally, and for the last 800,000 years up until the Industrial Revolution did not show much of a trend, just fluctuating between about 170 and 280 parts per million. The hypothetical scenario of a further decline below these levels is not relevant – it is not the case that human-driven CO2

emissions have somehow saved us from declining CO2 levels and declining plant growth, as seems to be the implication behind this paragraph.

Quote given to Carbon Brief

Supporting evidence

[HYPERLINK "https://www.ipcc.ch/report/ar6/wg1/chapter/chapter-5/" \h]

2.1 CO2 as a contributor to global greening

Page 5

MISLEADING

The overwhelming theme is that plants, especially C3 plants, benefit from extra CO2.

Anonymous

While individual plants benefit in isolation, the overall effect on an ecosystem and biodiversity can be detrimental due to some species benefitting more than others and out-competing them – for example, lianas responding more than trees, which they damage, encroachment of trees and shrubs into grasslands and savannahs, and the promotion of invasive species and weeds.

Quote given to Carbon Brief

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2.1 CO2 as a contributor to global greening

Page 5

MISLEADING

There are two mechanisms by which CO2 confers a growth benefit

Anonymous

A "growth benefit" to the plant is not necessarily beneficial in other ways – for example, from IPCC AR6: "Perennial crops and root crops may have a greater capacity for enhanced biomass under elevated CO2 concentrations, although this does not always result in higher yields. For some food crops, nutrient density declines due to elevated CO2." And: "Elevated CO2 reduces some important nutrients such as protein, iron, zinc and some grains, fruit or vegetables to varying degrees depending on crop species and cultivars."

Quote given to Carbon Brief

Supporting evidence

[[HYPERLINK "https://www.ipcc.ch/report/ar6/wg2/chapter/chapter-5/" \h](https://www.ipcc.ch/report/ar6/wg2/chapter/chapter-5/)]

2.1 CO2 as a contributor to global greening

Page 5

MISLEADING

The gains induced by increasing CO2 from 150ppm to 350ppm continue under a further doubling to 700ppm.

Anonymous

This very simplistic illustration from a small laboratory study ignores key effects such as nutrient availability, which in the real world can constrain the response to elevated CO₂.

Quote given to Carbon Brief

Supporting evidence

[[HYPERLINK "https://onlinelibrary.wiley.com/doi/10.1111/gcb.16377" \h](https://onlinelibrary.wiley.com/doi/10.1111/gcb.16377)]

2.2 The alkaline oceans

Pages 17-18

MISLEADING

Section 2.2.1

[[HYPERLINK "https://wmo.int/profile/john-kennedy" \h](https://wmo.int/profile/john-kennedy)], climate scientist

"The first subsection builds towards the conclusion in the summary that 'ocean life is complex and much of it evolved when the oceans were acidic relative to the present'. Leaving aside the vacuity of this argument for the moment – life itself evolved when there was little oxygen in the atmosphere, the biochemical innovations that flooded the atmosphere with oxygen were catastrophic for life then, but see how we would do without it now – their citations are spare and strange particularly within the context of later arguments about the value of models and the contention that this is some sort of meaningful 'critical review'. The first paper they cite regarding long-term change in ocean pH is Krissansen-

Totton et al. (2018), which uses a model to constrain climate and ocean pH of the early Earth up to the present. They find that ocean pH evolves monotonically from 6.6 (see the abstract of the paper for the broad uncertainty ranges) at 4.0 Ga to 7.0 at the Archean-Proterozoic boundary, and to 7.9 at the Proterozoic-Phanerozoic boundary reaching a modern value of 8.2. While we might raise an eyebrow that the 'critical review' finds models are good enough for the herculean task of reproducing almost the whole of Earth's climate history, but not for understanding the past 200 years, the eyebrow is likely to go shooting off your face when you reach the sentence in the 'critical review' that says: 'Even if the water were to turn acidic, it is believed that life in the oceans evolved when the oceans were mildly acidic with pH 6.5 to 7.0.' I derive little comfort from the fact that simple life forms evolved in such conditions. The gist of the 'critical review' isn't that simple life forms will survive the current warming, but that human society supported by a flourishing biosphere will not just survive but thrive. Anyway, this is only part of an argument and the whole of the argument is never really spelled out. It seems to go something like this: pH of the ocean varied in the past and we exist today, therefore we will always exist and pH of the ocean is unimportant.

"The second, shorter, long-term perspective, which feeds into this argument, mixes up surface pH (as shown in Figure 2.3 from the CMEMS dataset) with deep ocean pH (from Rae et al. (2018)) who (according to their abstract) 'present deep-sea coral boron isotope data that track the pH – and thus the CO₂ chemistry – of the deep Southern Ocean over the past forty thousand years'. 'Deep' and 'track' are the operative words here. The estimated changes are 'deep', from a depth of around 750 metres and not the surface. Regarding 'track', the numbers quoted in the 'critical review' – pH of 7.4 to 7.5 20,000 years

ago – came presumably from Figure S1 in the Rae paper, which provides an approximate conversion of the boron isotopes to pH. How very very approximate they are is shown by an inset uncertainty range, which extends from well below 7.4 to well above 7.6 suggesting great care is needed in the interpretation of the absolute pH values."

Quote from [[HYPERLINK "https://diagrammonkey.wordpress.com/2023/04/20/if-a-komodo-dragon-bites-john-then/" \h](https://diagrammonkey.wordpress.com/2023/04/20/if-a-komodo-dragon-bites-john-then/)]

Supporting evidence

[[HYPERLINK "https://www.pnas.org/doi/full/10.1073/pnas.1721296115" \h](https://www.pnas.org/doi/full/10.1073/pnas.1721296115)]

2.2 The alkaline oceans

Pages 18-19

MISLEADING

Section 2.2.2

[[HYPERLINK "https://wmo.int/profile/john-kennedy" \h](https://wmo.int/profile/john-kennedy)], climate scientist

"The first two paragraphs of the 'critical review' are on that famous American landmark the Great Barrier Reef. And why not? Well. One 'why not' can be found in the IPCC report (AR6 WG2). Chapter 11 has a box ('Box 11.2 | The Great Barrier Reef in Crisis'). It doesn't mention ocean acidification as a risk to the GBR at all (though OA is mentioned frequently elsewhere). The two big risks mentioned are bleaching in response to marine heatwaves and erosion caused by tropical cyclones. Neither of these factors is unconnected to climate change. Ocean acidification may not be a risk to the GBR, but climate change certainly is. The AIMS website which is referenced in the 'critical review' even notes 'a

high tolerance in massive Porites to ocean acidification'. The GBR is introduced here as a 2,300km long straw man.

"The rest of the section concerns itself with the more general impacts of ocean acidification. But only glancingly. They cite Browman (2016) on the lack of null results in the literature and offer, as an example, Clements et al. (2021) which is about the direct effects of OA on the behaviour of fish specifically (not the reefs themselves) though it does have a juicy metascientific quote that serves their purpose of suggesting that discussion of the topic is one-sided. If anything, Clements et al. shows that the literature is no longer one-sided so it rather weakens the point they are trying to make...The Browman article is also somewhat meta and points out that papers on ocean acidification were appearing at an average rate of 300 per year between 2006 and 2015, with around 600 articles per year in each of 2013, 2014 and 2015. How many are there now? I don't know. The Browman and Clements articles are both old-as in the context of a fast-moving field. A simple Google Scholar search will show you that not only are there huge numbers of papers mentioning the topic in the past five years, but there are even lots of review papers and meta analyses on the topic which cover a much broader range of impacts. Summarising that literature with just 12 references (including links to the data used) is not adequate by any definition."

Quote from [[HYPERLINK "https://diagrammonkey.wordpress.com/2023/04/20/if-a-komodo-dragon-bites-john-then/"](https://diagrammonkey.wordpress.com/2023/04/20/if-a-komodo-dragon-bites-john-then/) \h]

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2.1 CO2 as a contributor to global greening

Page 6

MISLEADING

Deryng et al. (2016) surveyed evidence on crop water productivity (CWP), the yield per unit of water used, drawing attention to the potential for CO2 both to enhance photosynthesis and to reduce leaf-level transpiration (water loss during leaf respiration). They surveyed all available FACE data (Free Air CO2 Enrichment – see Chapter 9) on crop yield changes for maize (corn), wheat, rice, and soybean and combined it with crop model data simulating yield responses as of 2080 under the extreme RCP8.5 emissions scenario in four growing regions (tropics, arid, temperate and cold) each of which were split into rainfed and irrigated sub-regions. They reported that models without CO2 fertilisation predicted CWP losses in every region, but those were more than offset by CO2 fertilisation so that all regions showed a net CWP gain. Deryng et al. (2016) also reported that negative impacts of warming on wheat and soybean yields were fully offset by CWP gains and mitigated by up to 90% for rice and 60% for maize.

[[HYPERLINK "https://www.iri-thesys.org/people-pages/delphine-deryng-dr/"](https://www.iri-thesys.org/people-pages/delphine-deryng-dr/) \h], lead author, IPCC AR6 WG2

While those are general conclusions of the paper, they are misleading by not mentioning the considerable discrepancy among modelled results. In fact, this paper was the first of its kind to present findings from the first global modelling intercomparison initiative of global gridded crop models, focusing specifically on how state-of-the-art models represented CO2 effects on crop yield and

evapotranspiration, highlighting these effects as a dominant source of uncertainty in the results, outpassing the uncertainty resulting from the use of different climate change projections. The supplementary information of the paper includes the detailed uncertainty analysis. A key message of the paper was also to highlight the needs for further research on the effects of CO2 on crops and their representation in crop models. Toreti et al. (2020) provides a comprehensive review of the uncertainties associated with the effects of elevated CO2 on crops,

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2.1 CO2 as a contributor to global greening

Page 6

FALSE

Deryng et al. (2016) assumed that climate change would “exacerbate water scarcity”. Yet while models do predict that drylands will expand under climate warming, current data show the opposite: greening is happening even in arid areas.

[HYPERLINK "https://www.iri-thesys.org/people-pages/delphine-deryng-dr/"
\h], lead author, IPCC AR6 WG2

Greening and water scarcity are processes related to different carbon and water cycles, respectively. They cannot be directly compared. Deryng et al. (2016)

didn't assume but reported findings from peer-reviewed scientific studies on water scarcity trends. Deryng et al (2016) specifically stated: "Research indicates unabated climate change will exacerbate water scarcity around the world. This is thought to threaten agricultural productivity and food security, especially in arid regions, where agriculture relies heavily on irrigation and consumes the majority of diverted freshwater."

Quote given to Carbon Brief

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2.1 CO2 as a contributor to global greening

Page 6

FALSE

The IPCC has only minimally discussed global greening and CO2 fertilisation of agricultural crops. The topic is briefly acknowledged in a few places in the body of the IPCC 6th and earlier assessment reports but is omitted in all summary documents. Section 2.3.4.3.3 of the AR6 WG1 report, entitled “global greening and browning,” points out that the IPCC special report on climate change and land had concluded with high confidence that greening had increased globally over the past two-to-three decades. It then discusses that there are variations in the greening trend among data sets, concluding that while they have high confidence greening has occurred, they have low confidence in the magnitude of the trend. There are also brief mentions of CO2

fertilization effects and improvements in water use efficiency in a few other chapters in the AR6 WG1 and 2 reports.

[[HYPERLINK "https://www.iri-thesys.org/people-pages/delphine-deryng-dr/"](https://www.iri-thesys.org/people-pages/delphine-deryng-dr/) \h], lead author, IPCC AR6 WG2

Chapter 5 of IPCC WG2 AR6 has reported the state of knowledge of CO₂ fertilisation effects on crops, including photosynthesis stimulation, evapotranspiration reductions, as well as elevated CO₂ effects on the quality of crops. These are widely discussed throughout the chapter, including in figures 5.6, 5.7, and 5.11, as well as in sections 5.2.1 (Detection and Attribution of Observed Impacts), 5.4.1 (Observed Impacts of crop-based systems), 5.4.3 (Projected Impacts of crop-based systems), 5.4.4 (Adaptation Options of crop-based systems), 5.5.3 (Projected Impacts of Livestock-Based Systems), 5.6.2 (Projected Impacts of forestry systems), 5.10.3 (Projected Impacts of mixed systems), 5.12.2 (Mechanisms for Climate Change Impacts on Food Security), 5.12.4 (Projected Impacts on Food Security). The effects of elevated CO₂ on food systems are also included in the summary tables 5.9 (Observed and predicted impacts of climate change on selected medicinal plant species) and 5.14 (Impacts from climate change drivers on the four dimensions of food security).

Quote given to Carbon Brief

Supporting evidence

[[HYPERLINK "https://www.ipcc.ch/report/ar6/wg2/chapter/chapter-5/"](https://www.ipcc.ch/report/ar6/wg2/chapter/chapter-5/) \h]

2.1 CO₂ as a contributor to global greening

FALSE

Overall, however, the policymaker summaries, technical summaries and synthesis reports of AR5 and AR6 do not discuss the topic.

[[HYPERLINK "https://www.iri-thesys.org/people-pages/delphine-deryng-dr/"](https://www.iri-thesys.org/people-pages/delphine-deryng-dr/) \h], lead author, IPCC AR6 WG2

The technical summary does include a statement of CO2 fertilisation effects on vegetation and crops. Specifically in the observed and projected impacts sections (TS.B.1.5 and TS.C.1.4) as well as in Figure TS.6 FOOD-WATER. The summary for policymakers includes a summary of the findings. In the case of agriculture the overall key risks are reported, which are based on the overall assessment of observed and projected impacts of climate change, including effects of CO2 fertilisation, as well as potential contribution of adaptation measures on global and regional food production and food security.

Quote given to Carbon Brief

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2.1 CO2 as a contributor to global greening

Page 6

MISLEADING

The IPCC has only minimally discussed global greening and CO2 fertilisation of agricultural crops.

Anonymous

The IPCC has extensively discussed the promotion of plant growth by rising atmospheric CO₂ concentrations and consequent effects on global vegetation and land carbon sinks, including in summary documents – just not using the specific term "global greening" since other terms are used. The AR6 WG1 carbon cycle chapter prominently discusses the uptake of carbon in land ecosystems, e.g. in the executive summary page ("The ocean and land sinks of CO₂ have continued to grow over the past six decades in response to increasing anthropogenic CO₂ emissions (high confidence)") and in Frequently Asked Question 5.1. The WG1 summary for policymakers includes a figure showing the land carbon sink (Figure SPM.7). In WG2, chapter 2 on terrestrial ecosystems also discusses this, e.g. in the executive summary: "Biome shifts and structural changes within ecosystems have been detected at an increasing number of locations, consistent with climate change and increasing atmospheric CO₂ (high confidence)" and "A combination of changes in grazing, browsing, fire, climate and atmospheric CO₂ is leading to observed woody encroachment into grasslands and savannah."

The WG2 technical summary includes a figure showing woody encroachment (Figure TS12) and the WG2 summary for policymakers states that "at the global scale, terrestrial ecosystems currently remove more carbon from the atmosphere than they emit", but also notes: "However, recent climate change has shifted some systems in some regions from being net carbon sinks to net carbon sources." (page 20 footnote 39). The WG2 food chapter extensively discusses effects of elevated CO₂ on crops, including both past and projected future changes. The summary documents focus on overall outcomes from the

combined effects of climate change, elevated CO2 and other changes in atmospheric composition. The IPCC also specifically notes that elevated CO2 can reduce nutritional quality in crops.

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2.1 CO2 as a contributor to global greening

Page 6

FALSE

The topic is briefly acknowledged in a few places in the body of the IPCC 6th and earlier assessment reports.

Anonymous

The topic of CO2 fertilisation effects, including their limitations and interactions with other drivers of change, are extensively discussed in AR6 WG2 chapter 5 (Food, Fibre and Other Ecosystem Products). The term "CO2" appears 136 times in that chapter. In the WG1 report, Chapter 5 is "Global Carbon and Other Biogeochemical Cycles and Feedbacks" and, again, extensively includes discussion of CO2 effects as part of the carbon cycle.

Quote given to Carbon Brief

Supporting evidence

[HYPERLINK "https://www.ipcc.ch/report/ar6/wg2/chapter/chapter-5/" \h]

2.1 CO2 as a contributor to global greening

Page 6

FALSE

Overall, however, the policymaker summaries, technical summaries and synthesis reports of AR5 and AR6 do not discuss the topic.

Anonymous

The WG1 summary for policymakers includes a figure showing the land carbon sink (Figure SPM.7) and the caption includes: "Land and ocean carbon sinks respond to past, current and future emissions...During the historical period (1850-2019) the observed land and ocean sink took up 1430 GtCO₂ (59% of the emissions)." The WG2 technical summary includes a figure showing woody encroachment (Figure TS12) and the WG2 summary for policymakers states: "At the global scale, terrestrial ecosystems currently remove more carbon from the atmosphere than they emit." It also notes: "However, recent climate change has shifted some systems in some regions from being net carbon sinks to net carbon sources." In AR5, the WG1 SPM says: "Of these cumulative anthropogenic CO₂ emissions...160 [70 to 250] GtC have accumulated in natural terrestrial ecosystems (i.e., the cumulative residual land sink)."

Quote given to Carbon Brief

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2.2 The alkaline oceans

Page 7

MISLEADING

Even if the water were to turn acidic, it is believed that life in the oceans evolved when the oceans were mildly acidic with pH 6.5 to 7.0 (Krissansen-Totton et al. (2018)).

[[HYPERLINK](#)

"<https://depts.washington.edu/astrobio/wordpress/profile/joshua-krissansen-totton/>" \h], assistant professor, Earth and space sciences , University of Washington

“Krissansen-Totton told WIRED in an email that his work on ocean acidity billions of years ago has ‘no relevance’ to the impacts of human-driven ocean acidification today and that today calcium carbonate saturation is quickly diminishing in the ocean alongside rising acidity. Dissolved calcium carbonate is essential for many marine species, particularly those that rely on it to build their shells.’The much more gradual changes in ocean pH we observe on geologic timescales were typically not accompanied by the rapid changes in carbonate saturation that human CO₂ emissions are causing, and so the former are not useful analogs for assessing the impact of ocean acidification on the modern marine biosphere,’ he says.”

Quote from [HYPERLINK "<https://www.wired.com/story/scientists-say-new-government-climate-report-twists-their-work/>" \h]

2.2 The alkaline oceans

Page 7

MISLEADING

Even if the water were to turn acidic, it is believed that life in the oceans evolved when the oceans were mildly acidic with pH 6.5 to 7.0 (Krissansen-Totton et al. (2018).

[[HYPERLINK "https://www.st-andrews.ac.uk/earth-sciences/people/jwbr/" \h](https://www.st-andrews.ac.uk/earth-sciences/people/jwbr/)], reader, geochemistry and climate, University of St Andrews

Modern marine life and ecosystems (e.g. coral reefs and open ocean fisheries) are very different from the initial lifeforms that evolved in the earliest oceans (e.g. bacteria, single-celled organisms) and so have different adaptive ranges and vulnerabilities. In the same way that the environmental conditions which were suitable for dinosaurs have little relevance for optimal conditions for humans, there is little relevance in comparing early ocean bacterial habitats to the conditions to which modern marine life has adapted.

Quote given to Carbon Brief

2.2 The alkaline oceans

Page 7

MISLEADING

On the time scale of thousands of years, boron isotope proxy measurements show that ocean pH was around 7.4 or 7.5 during the last glaciation (up to

about 20,000 years ago) increasing to present-day values as the world warmed during deglaciation (Rae et al. (2018)).

[[HYPERLINK "https://www.st-andrews.ac.uk/earth-sciences/people/jwbr/" \h](https://www.st-andrews.ac.uk/earth-sciences/people/jwbr/)],
reader, geochemistry and climate, University of St Andrews

The use of "ocean pH" in this statement is misleading, as it seems to imply whole ocean pH or (following from the text above) the pH of the surface ocean, whereas the boron isotope study referenced here (of which I was the first author) apply only to the deep Southern Ocean. These are completely different habitats occupied by completely different species. The habitats of most concern with respect to ocean acidification are in the surface (e.g. coral reefs, key fisheries), where pH was higher than today during the last ice age (e.g. Shao et al., 2019), not lower as suggested in figure 5 of Shao et al. (2019).

Quote given to Carbon Brief

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2.2 The alkaline oceans

Page 7

MISLEADING

Thus, ocean biota appear to be resilient to natural long-term changes in ocean pH since marine organisms were exposed to wide ranges in pH.

[[HYPERLINK "https://www.st-andrews.ac.uk/earth-sciences/people/jwbr/" \h](https://www.st-andrews.ac.uk/earth-sciences/people/jwbr/)],
reader, geochemistry and climate, University of St Andrews

Natural long-term changes in ocean pH have a fundamentally different impact on ocean chemistry than rapid input of carbon from fossil fuels (see Honisch et al. (2011)). When ocean pH is lowered rapidly (e.g. on decadal to centennial timescales), the abundance of carbonate ions decreases rapidly. As these carbonate ions are the most critical ingredient for marine shell formation, shells become harder to grow. Technically, this is known as a drop in calcium carbonate saturation state and it makes calcium carbonate shell formation more energetically costly (e.g. Gagnon et al., (2021)). In contrast, when ocean pH is lowered slowly (e.g. on timescales of a thousand years or more), the dissolution of seafloor calcium carbonate, alongside weathering of rocks on land, has a buffering effect on ocean saturation state, allowing shell formation to continue unimpeded despite the lower pH. Today, anthropogenic CO₂ emission is lowering ocean pH on decadal to centennial timescales, which are too rapid for these buffering processes to keep up with, resulting in lower calcium carbonate saturation states, and making shell formation more energetically costly and enhancing environmental stress on these organisms.

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2.2 The alkaline oceans

Page 8

MISLEADING

Similarly, a meta-analysis (Clements et al. (2021)) of the negative effects of ocean acidification on reef fish behavior found what they called a “decline effect”: initially dramatic conclusions published in prominent journals showing apparently large impacts of acidification tended to be followed up by subsequent studies on larger sample sizes yielding much smaller and typically non-existent effects. They call for their colleagues to improve research practices to counter the “decline effect”: [The] vast majority of studies with large effect sizes in this field tend to be characterised by low sample sizes, yet are published in high-impact journals and have a disproportionate influence on the field in terms of citations. We contend that ocean acidification has a negligible direct impact on fish behaviour, and we advocate for improved approaches to minimise the potential for a decline effect in future avenues of research (Clements et al. (2021)).

[[HYPERLINK "https://jclementsphd.ca/"](https://jclementsphd.ca/) \h], marine ecologist, Fisheries and Oceans Canada (Gulf Region)

“Clements...says that the way the DoE report cites his research on ocean acidification and fish behavior is accurate ‘from an explicit textual perspective’...Clements says in an email to WIRED that just because his review of the literature found fish behavior to be relatively unaffected by ocean acidification does not mean that a myriad of other ocean ecosystems, biological processes and species will fare similarly. Other work from his lab, meanwhile, has underscored the vulnerability of mussels to ocean warming and looked at how heat waves negatively alter clam behavior...’I want to make it clear that our results should not be interpreted to mean ocean acidification (or climate change more generally) is not a problem,’ he tells WIRED. ‘While effects on fish behavior may not be as severe as initially thought, other species and biological

processes are certainly vulnerable to the impacts of acidification and the compendium of other climate change stressors that our oceans are experiencing.’”

Quote from [[HYPERLINK "https://www.wired.com/story/scientists-say-new-government-climate-report-twists-their-work/" \h](https://www.wired.com/story/scientists-say-new-government-climate-report-twists-their-work/)]

2.2 The alkaline oceans

Page 8

MISLEADING

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[[HYPERLINK "https://www.ntnu.edu/employees/fredrik.jutfelt" \h](https://www.ntnu.edu/employees/fredrik.jutfelt)],

professor of fish ecophysiology, Norwegian University of Science and Technology

The way the DoE report cites our own work is flawed, as they use a specific finding in a small subsection of the field to represent the state of the entire field. This is intellectually dishonest and unscientific, and suggests either gross incompetence or an underlying bias.

Quote given to Carbon Brief

Supporting evidence

[[HYPERLINK "https://journals.plos.org/plosbiology/article?id=10.1371/journal.pbio.3001511" \h](https://journals.plos.org/plosbiology/article?id=10.1371/journal.pbio.3001511)]

2.2 The alkaline oceans

Page 8

MISLEADING

In summary, ocean life is complex and much of it evolved when the oceans were acidic relative to the present. The ancestors of modern coral first appeared about 245m years ago. CO2 levels for more than 200m years afterward were many times higher than they are today. Much of the public discussion of the effects of ocean “acidification” on marine biota has been one-sided and exaggerated.

[[HYPERLINK "https://wmo.int/profile/john-kennedy"](https://wmo.int/profile/john-kennedy) \h], climate scientist

The factoid about coral appearing 245m years ago is unreferenced and not previously mentioned in the section. The contention regarding ‘much of the public discussion’ is likewise unreferenced and not mentioned elsewhere in the section. Public discussion and scientific discussion are two different things. Public discussion isn’t discussed at all and, anyway, the ‘critical review’ is supposedly reviewing the science. I think it’s safe to say it has failed there too.

Quote from [[HYPERLINK](https://diagrammonkey.wordpress.com/2023/04/20/if-a-komodo-dragon-bites-john-then/)

"https://diagrammonkey.wordpress.com/2023/04/20/if-a-komodo-dragon-bites-john-then/" \h]

2.2 The alkaline oceans

Page 8

MISLEADING

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[[HYPERLINK "https://www.st-andrews.ac.uk/earth-sciences/people/jwbr/" \h](https://www.st-andrews.ac.uk/earth-sciences/people/jwbr/)],
reader, geochemistry and climate, University of St Andrews

As discussed above, long-term geological pH changes are not a good analogue for a rapid drop in pH of the type happening today, for the key reason that a rapid pH drop results in lowered calcium carbonate saturation state, which makes shell formation harder (e.g. Honisch et al., (2011)). To find better analogues for modern pH decline in the geological record, we need to look at times when ocean pH dropped more quickly. Data of this type are compiled in a recent study by Trudgill et al. (2025). These show that all of the major mass extinction events in the ocean for which we have pH reconstructions are associated with a rapid drop in ocean pH. The geological record thus suggests that rapid pH decline is a matter for serious concern for marine ecosystems and the communities and economies which they support.

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References

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Chen, X., Wang, Y., Liu, Y., and Piao, S. (2024). The global greening continues despite increased drought stress since 2000. Global Ecology and Conservation, 49, e02791.

Anonymous

The author list is incorrect on this citation. It should be Xin Chen, Tiexi Chen, Bin He, Shuci Liu, Shengjie Zhou and Tingting Shi. It falsely associates the paper with well-known authors and demonstrates lack of attention to detail.

Quote given to Carbon Brief

Supporting evidence

[[HYPERLINK "https://www.sciencedirect.com/science/article/pii/S2351989423004262"](https://www.sciencedirect.com/science/article/pii/S2351989423004262) \h]

3 Human influences on the climate

Page 11

MISLEADING

The IPCC has downplayed the role of the sun in climate change, but there are plausible solar irradiance reconstructions that imply it contributed to recent warming.

[[HYPERLINK "https://www.mps.mpg.de/solar-physics/staff/27569"](https://www.mps.mpg.de/solar-physics/staff/27569) \h],

astrophysicist, Max Planck Institute for Solar System Research

This is a vague and potentially misleading statement. The IPCC AR6 adopted the solar radiative forcing values recommended by CMIP6, while AR5 used those from CMIP5. In both cases, the TSI [total solar irradiance] reconstructions selected were the most advanced and extensively scrutinised available at the time (Matthes et al. (2017)). The notion that there exist "plausible" solar irradiance reconstructions implying a solar contribution to recent warming is misleading, since it leaves it vague as to how much it contributed. The most scientifically robust irradiance reconstructions indicate that this contribution has been relatively small in recent decades. The wording of this statement appears to implicitly reference the work of Connolly et al. (2021) and (2023), although only the former is cited in the DoE report. Connolly et al. (2021) argued that a significant portion, or even most, of recent global warming could be attributed to solar variability. However, their approach involved cherry-picking and balancing 16 TSI reconstructions: eight with low long-term variability and eight with high variability. To create this balance, they included outdated or superseded models while omitting many low-variability reconstructions.

The high-variability series used by Connolly et al. (2021):

- Hoyt and Schatten (1993) has been thoroughly discredited (see Chatzistergos (2024)). It includes arbitrary manual adjustments and even fabricated data, with some values seemingly copied from another solar index.
- Lean et al. (1995) is an early version of the NRL [Naval Research Laboratory] model that has since been superseded by multiple updated versions, most recently NRLTSI2/NNL (Coddington et al. (2016) and (2019)).
- Bard et al. (2000) used a simplified linear conversion from cosmogenic isotope production (e.g., ^{10}Be) to TSI, without accounting for nonlinear effects such as

geomagnetic modulation, atmospheric transport processes, or climate-driven deposition variations. These omissions have been addressed in more physically realistic models like SATIRE-M [Spectral And Total Irradiance REconstructions] (Wu et al. (2018)), which show significantly lower long-term variability.

Furthermore, Delaygue and Bard (2011) revised the original Bard et al. (2000) reconstruction which was exhibiting low long-term variability, yet this update was ignored by Connolly et al. (2021).

- Shapiro et al. (2011), an older high-variability model, was effectively replaced by Egorova et al. (2018), which itself has been criticised by Yeo et al. (2020) for exaggerating long-term TSI changes. - Egorova et al. (2018) was included four times in the Connolly et al. (2021) analysis. Including Shapiro et al. (2011), a predecessor of Egorova's model, the same model family was effectively used five times, artificially inflating the weight of high-variability reconstructions.

Crucially, in all these high-variability models, the long-term TSI trends were not derived from observational constraints but were imposed as assumptions. Modern revisions of the NRL model (Lean (2018) and Coddington et al. (2019)) and the Hoyt and Schatten model (Chatzistergos (2024)) have significantly reduced these assumed trends to align with observational evidence. Therefore, treating these outdated, superseded, or methodologically flawed reconstructions as equally probable alternatives to modern, validated TSI models is scientifically unjustified. It creates a false equivalence that misrepresents the current state of solar irradiance research. Connolly et al. (2023), although not cited in the DoE report, extended the analysis to 27 TSI series. However, the same methodological issues persist. Many of the added reconstructions are either outdated or redundant versions of older models. Notably, the highest solar attribution results again stem from Hoyt and

Schatten (1993) and Bard et al. (2000), both of which have been superseded and shown to be unreliable. Finally, the attribution method used by Connolly et al. (2021) was directly critiqued by Richardson and Benestad (2022), who identified substantial flaws in their regression methodology and treatment of uncertainty. Even with the analysis presented in Connolly et al. (2021) and (2023) when the outdated, superseded and implausible TSI series are removed, the result is that the solar contribution to global warming is significantly smaller than the anthropogenic one.

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3.1 Components of radiative forcing and their history

Page 12

MISLEADING

The IPCC assesses the change in the radiative forcing by the sun to be negligible, based on their preference for data reconstructions that imply minimal solar change since pre-industrial times.

[[HYPERLINK "https://www.mps.mpg.de/solar-physics/staff/27568"](https://www.mps.mpg.de/solar-physics/staff/27568) \h],
astrophysicist, Max Planck Institute for Solar System Research

The selection of TSI reconstructions for use in CMIP6 and IPCC AR6 was based on the scientific robustness and performance of the models, rather than the magnitude of TSI variability they imply (Matthes et al. (2017)). The two reconstructions adopted were SATIRE and NRLTSI (now referred to as NNLTSI). These models were chosen because they represent the most advanced TSI reconstructions currently available. SATIRE is a semi-empirical, physics-based model, while NNLTSI is a proxy-based regression model. Both have been extensively validated and demonstrate excellent agreement with direct satellite measurements of TSI, making them the most reliable choices for climate modeling to date.

Quote given to Carbon Brief

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[[HYPERLINK "https://gmd.copernicus.org/articles/10/2247/2017/gmd-10-2247-2017-discussion.html"](https://gmd.copernicus.org/articles/10/2247/2017/gmd-10-2247-2017-discussion.html) \ h]

3.1 Components of radiative forcing and their history

Page 12

MISLEADING

But Connolly et al. (2021) reviewed 16 different Total Solar Irradiance (TSI) reconstructions in the literature covering the years 1600-2000; the reconstructions vary from almost no change in TSI to a relatively large upward trend. Those authors note that the variation in TSI reconstructions combined with variations in surface temperature reconstructions allows for inferences consistent with either no or most 20th century warming being attributable to the sun.

[[HYPERLINK "https://www.mps.mpg.de/solar-physics/staff/27564"](https://www.mps.mpg.de/solar-physics/staff/27564) \h],

astrophysicist, Max Planck Institute for Solar System Research

The approach by Connolly et al. (2021) involved cherry-picking and balancing 16 TSI reconstructions: eight with low long-term variability and eight with high variability. To create this balance, they included outdated or superseded models while omitting many low-variability reconstructions.

The high-variability series used by Connolly et al. (2021):

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Furthermore, Delaygue and Bard (2011) revised the original Bard et al. (2000) reconstruction which was exhibiting low long-term variability, yet this update was ignored by Connolly et al. (2021).

- Shapiro et al. (2011), an older high-variability model, was effectively replaced by Egorova et al. (2018), which itself has been criticised by Yeo et al. (2020) for exaggerating long-term TSI changes. - Egorova et al. (2018) was included four

times in the Connolly et al. (2021) analysis. Including Shapiro et al. (2011), a predecessor of Egorova's model, the same model family was effectively used five times, artificially inflating the weight of high-variability reconstructions.

Crucially, in all these high-variability models, the long-term TSI trends were not derived from observational constraints but were imposed as assumptions. Modern revisions of the NRL model (Lean (2018) and Coddington et al. (2019)) and the Hoyt and Schatten model (Chatzistergos (2024)) have significantly reduced these assumed trends to align with observational evidence. Therefore, treating these outdated, superseded, or methodologically flawed reconstructions as equally probable alternatives to modern, validated TSI models is scientifically unjustified. It creates a false equivalence that misrepresents the current state of solar irradiance research.

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3.1 Components of radiative forcing and their history

Page 13

MISLEADING

A particularly thorny issue is the gap in TSI data between 1989 and 1991 due to a delay in the launch of a monitor following the Space Shuttle Challenger

disaster on 28 January 1986.

[[HYPERLINK "https://www.mps.mpg.de/solar-physics/staff/27563"](https://www.mps.mpg.de/solar-physics/staff/27563) \h],
astrophysicist, Max Planck Institute for Solar System Research

It is an overstatement to characterise the “ACRIM-gap” [A gap in TSI measurements between the ACRIM-1 and ACRIM-2 satellite monitoring experiments] as a "particularly thorny" issue. While it does contribute to uncertainty in the long-term trend of direct TSI measurements, a growing body of evidence challenges the notion of a TSI increase during the ACRIM-gap, evidence which the DoE report entirely overlooks. Notable examples include Amdur & Huybers (2023), Chatzistergos et al. (2025) and Krivova et al. (2009).
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3.1 Components of radiative forcing and their history

Page 13

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Connolly et al. (2021) found that the IPCC's consensus statements on solar forcing were formulated prematurely through the suppression of dissenting scientific opinions.

[[HYPERLINK "https://www.mps.mpg.de/solar-physics/staff/27559" \h](https://www.mps.mpg.de/solar-physics/staff/27559)],
astrophysicist, Max Planck Institute for Solar System Research

This is yet another statement in the DoE report that is vague. It is not clear what they refer to with consensus, is this about the long-term reconstructions, is it just about the ACRIM-gap that this paragraph discusses? In any case, it appears as a general statement which as such has to be labelled as false. The claim that dissenting scientific opinions are being suppressed is unfounded. Scientific consensus evolves through rigorous evaluation, not censorship. When significant methodological issues are identified, such as the arbitrary adjustments and fabricated data in the Hoyt and Schatten (1993) TSI reconstruction (Chatzistergos (2024)), it is scientifically appropriate to disregard such models as implausible. This is not suppression of dissenting voices, but the enforcement of standards for methodological soundness.

Another example is the Bard et al. (2000) TSI reconstruction, which has since been superseded by more advanced models. Bard et al. (2000) relied on a simplistic linear scaling of cosmogenic isotope production to estimate TSI variability, without accounting for the non-linear influence of geomagnetic field modulation on isotope production. This omission leads to inaccurate estimates of solar variability. Later reconstructions, such as those based on the SATIRE-M framework (e.g., Wu et al. (2018)), incorporate these critical non-linearities and have been shown to produce more consistent results with observational constraints. Albeit, uncertainties remain and more work is being invested in improving these reconstructions too. Furthermore, we have advanced physics-based irradiance reconstruction models, e.g. SATIRE-3D (Yeo et al. (2017) and (2020)), which have been used to set robust constraints on the

magnitude of plausible TSI variations. As a result, irradiance reconstructions that exceed this constraint are considered less plausible than those that remain within it. Disregarding outdated or methodologically flawed reconstructions is a hallmark of scientific integrity, not suppression. The continued use of discredited models undermines robust scientific discourse and misrepresents the state of knowledge. A reminder here that the study by Connolly et al. (2021) cherry-picked 16 TSI reconstructions, deliberately balancing the sample by including eight with small long-term trends and eight with pronounced trends. The high-variation models they used are Hoyt and Schatten (1993), Lean (1995), Bard et al. (2000), Shapiro et al. (2011) and Egorova et al. (2018; used 4 different versions). Besides the issues with Hoyt and Schatten (1993) and Bard et al. (2000) discussed above, Lean (1995) is an outdated precursor to the NRL (now NNL) model and is no longer considered plausible. Shapiro et al. (2011) and Egorova et al. (2018) are different versions of the same model both exceeding the Yeo et al. 2020 constraint.

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3.1 Components of radiative forcing and their history

Pages 22-24

MISLEADING

Section 3.1.1

[[HYPERLINK "https://schoeberl.academia.edu/" \h](https://schoeberl.academia.edu/)], chief scientist, Science and Technology Corp

The paper by Jenkins et al. (2023) did not include volcanic aerosol effects and thus estimated the wrong sign of the Hunga volcano radiative forcing. Subsequent papers (including my own) agree that Hunga would produce slight cooling. The inclusion of the Jenkins paper here suggests more uncertainty in the calculation than exists. All models and data analyses agree that Jenkins was incorrect (e.g. Stenchikov et al. (2025) and Zhuo et al. (2025)).

Quote given to Carbon Brief

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3.2 Future emission scenarios and the carbon cycle

Page 15

FALSE

Comparisons of past scenario groups against observations show that IPCC emission projections have tended to overstate actual subsequent emissions. For the IPCC third and fourth Assessment Reports a set of emission projections from the special report on emission scenarios was used; these were referred to as the SRES scenarios. McKittrick et al. (2012) showed that, when converted to per capita values, the SRES scenario emissions distribution was skewed upwards compared with observed trends.

[[HYPERLINK "https://berkeleyearth.org/team/"](https://berkeleyearth.org/team/) \l "zeke-hausfather" \h],
research scientist, Berkeley Earth

While some past IPCC emissions scenarios have overstated future total CO2 emissions (IS92B, A1F1, RCP8.5), others have understated them (IS92D, B2, RCP6). In general total CO2 emissions were on the high end of the range of both the 1992 IS92 scenarios and the 2000 SRES scenarios through 2015, before falling closer to the middle of the range in recent years. Notably both IS92 and SRES scenarios were all variations of baseline scenarios that did not explicitly include aggressive emissions mitigation.

Quote given to Carbon Brief

Supporting evidence

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3.2 Future emission scenarios and the carbon cycle

Page 15

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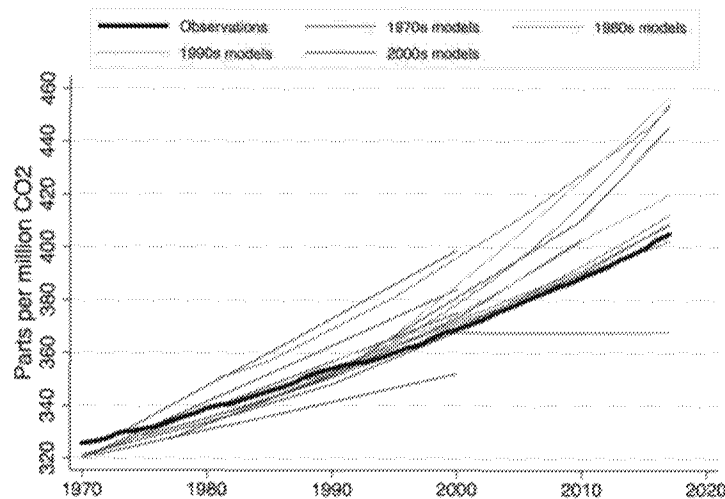


Figure 3.2.1 Since the 1970s successive families of emission and concentration projections (colored lines) have consistently overestimated observations (black line). Source: Hausfather *et al.* (2019) Figure S4.

[[HYPERLINK "https://berkeleyearth.org/team/"](https://berkeleyearth.org/team/) \l "zeke-hausfather" \h],
research scientist, Berkeley Earth

Figure 3.2.1 focuses primarily on older climate models that predate the SRES scenarios. The only SRES scenarios included in the figure are A2 and A1B, and those actually track CO₂ concentrations quite well. The disagreement is primarily with 1970s and 1980s era models; however, as Figure 1 in Hausfather et al. (2019) notes the trend in total forcing in these early models is actually a tad low due to their exclusion of non-CO₂ GHGs.

Quote given to Carbon Brief

Supporting evidence

[[HYPERLINK "https://agupubs.onlinelibrary.wiley.com/doi/full/10.1029/2019GL085378"](https://agupubs.onlinelibrary.wiley.com/doi/full/10.1029/2019GL085378) \h]

3.2 Future emission scenarios and the carbon cycle

Page 15

MISLEADING

The implausibility of the RCP8.5 scenario was examined by Burgess et al. (2021). The implausibility of RCP8.5 should not be interpreted as very unlikely (e.g. 95th 23 percentile) or a “worst case”, but rather as genuinely implausible owing to the implausibility of the inputs required to reach a forcing of 8.5 W/m². They noted that RCP8.5 has already diverged from observed trends in energy use and the near future trends diverge sharply from those of the International Energy Agency (IEA), which provides market-based projections of energy use for the coming decades. Pielke Jr. et al. (2022) further showed that the historic and projected IEA trends run near the bottom of the

envelopes of both RCP projections and the more recent Shared Socioeconomic Pathway (SSP) scenario trends.

[[HYPERLINK "https://berkeleyearth.org/team/"](https://berkeleyearth.org/team/) \l "zeke-hausfather" \h],
research scientist, Berkeley Earth

The authors do not clearly differentiate between the implausibility of a particular emissions scenario like that used to generate RCP8.5 and the forcing outcome of 8.5 watts per meter squared. The latter can come about not just through emissions, but also carbon cycle feedbacks (Hausfather and Betts (2020)). While it remains quite unlikely in my view that we end up at 8.5W/m² by 2100 even with large carbon cycle feedbacks, it is not impossible under a RCP6.0 emissions pathway. Similarly, 8.5W/m² radiative forcing becomes increasingly plausible post-2100 if emissions continue.

Quote given to Carbon Brief

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3.2 Future emission scenarios and the carbon cycle

Page 16

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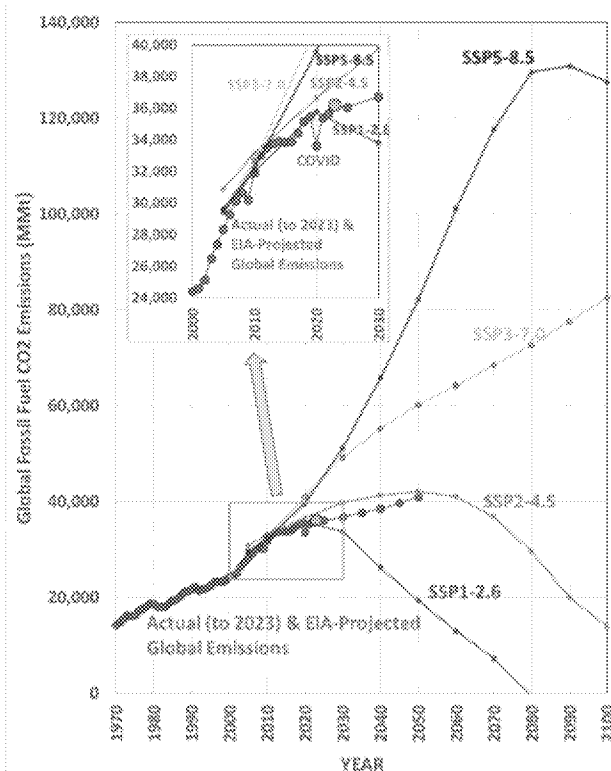


Figure 3.2.2. Observed and projected CO₂ emissions. Source: IPCC (SSP scenarios) and Energy Information Administration (EIA). Green: observed historical emissions and EIA projections. Other lines: SSP1-5. Data source: Friedlingstein *et al.* (2024).

[[HYPERLINK "https://berkeleyearth.org/team/"](https://berkeleyearth.org/team/) \l "zeke-hausfather" \h], research scientist, Berkeley Earth

The authors mistakenly conflate total global observed CO₂ emissions in this text with CO₂ emissions from fossil fuels alone (which are shown in Figure 3.2.2). If total CO₂ emissions are used (including land-use emissions), then CO₂ emissions fall right in the middle of the SSPs; in-line with SSP2-4.5 and SSP4-6.0, below SSP3-7.0 and SSP5-8.5, but above SSP1-1.9, SSP1-2.6 and SSP4-3.4.

Quote given to Carbon Brief

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3.2 Future emission scenarios and the carbon cycle

Page 17

MISLEADING

There are about 850Gt of carbon (GtC) in the Earth's atmosphere, almost all of it in the form of CO₂. Each year, biological processes (plant growth and decay) and physical processes (ocean absorption and outgassing) exchange about 200GtC of that carbon with the Earth's surface (roughly 80GtC with the land and 120GtC with the oceans). Before human activities became significant, removals from the atmosphere were roughly in balance with additions. But burning fossil fuels (coal, oil, and gas) removes carbon from the ground and adds it to the annual exchange with the atmosphere.

[[HYPERLINK "https://www.agu.org/user-profile?cstkey=E0190A3A-0069-416C-8B0C-4048C7E69CB8"](https://www.agu.org/user-profile?cstkey=E0190A3A-0069-416C-8B0C-4048C7E69CB8) \h], retired atmospheric physicist

The total mass of carbon in the atmosphere is increasing over time as the carbon dioxide concentration increases. Crisp et al. (2022) quoted a mass of 877 Peta grams of Carbon (Pg C; one Pg C is equivalent to one billion tonnes of carbon (GtC) or 3.67 billion tonnes of CO₂), which was a good estimate in 2020, when the atmospheric CO₂ dry air mole fraction (a measurement of concentration) was around 412ppm. Here, their estimate of “about 850GtC”, was relevant around a decade ago, when the average CO₂ concentration was closer to 400ppm. The quoted gross annual exchange of carbon between land and the atmosphere and between the ocean and the atmosphere are erroneous and their relative values are reversed. Here, they state that land exchanges 80GtC with the atmosphere and the oceans exchange 120GtC with the atmosphere. They do not cite specific sources for these numbers. They do not

come from Crisp et al. (2022). That paper cites gross ocean-atmosphere carbon flux of 90GtC per year and gross land-atmosphere carbon fluxes between 120 and 175GtC per year.

They end this paragraph by noting that the 10.3GtC emitted by fossil fuel use and cement manufacturing is only about 5% of annual emissions by the land biosphere and oceans. This is a half-truth that is clearly intended to be misleading. It fails to recognise that the atmosphere and climate respond to the net emissions and removals of carbon, not the gross fluxes. The land biosphere and ocean both add and remove carbon from the atmosphere, while fossil fuel use and other human activities only add carbon to the atmosphere. When averaged over the globe and over the year, the land biosphere and ocean remove as much carbon as they emit, along with over half of these anthropogenic emissions, yielding net emissions that are negative and only about half as large as the positive anthropogenic emissions. In this context, the net anthropogenic emissions are more than twice as large as the net natural CO₂ fluxes.

Quote given to Carbon Brief

Supporting evidence

[HYPERLINK "<https://agupubs.onlinelibrary.wiley.com/doi/full/10.1029/2021RG000736>" \h]

3.2 Future emission scenarios and the carbon cycle

Page 18

MISLEADING

The carbon cycle accommodates about 50% of humanity's small annual injection of carbon into the air by naturally sequestering it through plant

growth and oceanic uptake, while the remainder accumulates in the atmosphere (Ciais et al. (2013)). For that reason, the annual increase in atmospheric CO2 concentration averages only about half of that naively expected from human emissions.

[[HYPERLINK "https://www.agu.org/user-profile?cstkey=E0190A3A-0069-416C-8B0C-4048C7E69CB8"](https://www.agu.org/user-profile?cstkey=E0190A3A-0069-416C-8B0C-4048C7E69CB8) \h], retired atmospheric physicist

Here, the report authors recognise that existing observations show that natural processes in the land biosphere and ocean consistently remove about 50% of the anthropogenic CO2 emissions. They also note that this ratio has been preserved as the fossil fuel emissions have increased. They attribute the increasing land uptake to the “global greening” phenomena described in chapter 2.1 of this work. However, that chapter fails to recognise that the increasing leaf area index (LAI) does not always indicate increased CO2 uptake. In particular, as noted in Crisp et al. (2022), many regions of the tropics, where the largest increases in LAI have been seen over the past 50 years, have started to transition from net CO2 sinks to net sources of CO2. These changes are due to the impacts of human activities (e.g. deforestation, forest degradation) and climate change (increasing temperature, drought, vapor pressure deficit).

The authors also fail to note that while tropical land is absorbing less CO2, these losses are being compensated mostly by increased carbon uptake by forests at mid and high latitudes. There, climate change is driving longer, warmer growing seasons and permafrost thaw is allowing trees to grow deeper, more massive root systems that sequester more carbon in the soil. The rapid growth, combined with higher temperatures and more frequent droughts at these latitudes, result in larger and more frequent wildfires, which release CO2.

In summary, while the fraction of the anthropogenic CO₂ that has been absorbed by the land biosphere has remained almost constant in response to increasing atmospheric CO₂ abundances, different parts of the world are responding differently to climate change. The focus on “global greening” is a massive oversimplification of the system.

Quote given to Carbon Brief

Supporting evidence

[[HYPERLINK "https://agupubs.onlinelibrary.wiley.com/doi/full/10.1029/2021RG000736"](https://agupubs.onlinelibrary.wiley.com/doi/full/10.1029/2021RG000736) \h]

3.2 Future emission scenarios and the carbon cycle

Pages 28-31

MISLEADING

Section 3.2.2: subsections on “CO₂ uptake by land processes” and “CO₂ uptake by ocean processes”

[[HYPERLINK "https://www.agu.org/user-profile?cstkey=E0190A3A-0069-416C-8B0C-4048C7E69CB8"](https://www.agu.org/user-profile?cstkey=E0190A3A-0069-416C-8B0C-4048C7E69CB8) \h], retired atmospheric physicist

The last two subsections of this section focus on the carbon cycle models used by the Global Carbon Project. For both land and ocean, they note that this set of models predicts a range of estimates for the decadal uptake of CO₂ by the land and ocean carbon sinks. They use these results to foster doubt in the utility of these methods for predicting future change in the carbon cycle as it responds to climate change. This is interesting because they fail to note that all of the Dynamic Global Vegetation Models (DGVMs) included in this set include CO₂

fertilisation – a mechanism that the authors of this document advocate as a key benefit of increasing atmospheric CO2 amounts.

Quote given to Carbon Brief

3.3 Urbanisation influence on temperature trends

Page 20

MISLEADING

Peterson et al. had failed to find any difference in trends between rural and urban samples, although their definition of rural included local populations up to 10,000 persons while the relative influence of urbanisation begins well below that (Spencer et al. (2025)).

[[HYPERLINK "https://berkeleyearth.org/team/"](https://berkeleyearth.org/team/) \l "zeke-hausfather" \h], research scientist, Berkeley Earth

While Peterson et al. (1999) used a single proxy for urbanity, the follow-up Hausfather et al. (2013) study used four different proxies for urbanity in the conterminous US. It found little residual urban heat island (UHI) bias in the homogenised NOAA data, even when only rural stations are used for breakpoint detection and correction in the homogenisation process to avoid any risk of aliasing in a UHI signal.

Quote given to Carbon Brief

Supporting evidence

[[HYPERLINK "https://agupubs.onlinelibrary.wiley.com/doi/full/10.1029/2012JD018509"](https://agupubs.onlinelibrary.wiley.com/doi/full/10.1029/2012JD018509) \h]

3.3 Urbanisation influence on temperature trends

Page 21

MISLEADING

The influence of UHI warming is logarithmic in population, in other words it is strongest at low population density then levels off as local urbanisation expands (Oke (1973) and Spencer et al. (2025)). Hence failure to find a difference in warming rates between urban and rural stations does not prove the absence of UHI contamination.

[[HYPERLINK "https://berkeleyearth.org/team/"](https://berkeleyearth.org/team/) \l "zeke-hausfather" \h], research scientist, Berkeley Earth

This is both overly simplified – the actual environment immediately around the station matters a lot more than regional population density – and not particularly reflective of the literature. Some studies using pretty strict cutoffs for urbanity (e.g. Hausfather et al. (2013)) still find minimal differences in urban and rural stations.

Quote given to Carbon Brief

Supporting evidence

[[HYPERLINK "https://agupubs.onlinelibrary.wiley.com/doi/full/10.1029/2012JD018509"](https://agupubs.onlinelibrary.wiley.com/doi/full/10.1029/2012JD018509) \h]

3.3 Urbanisation influence on temperature trends

Page 21

FALSE

In summary, while there is clearly warming in the land record, there is also evidence that it is biased upward by patterns of urbanisation and that these biases have not been completely removed by the data processing algorithms used to produce climate data sets.

[[HYPERLINK "https://berkeleyearth.org/team/"](https://berkeleyearth.org/team/) \l "zeke-hausfather" \h],
research scientist, Berkeley Earth

The authors of the DoE report make a strong claim based on papers by some of their team (McKittrick and Spencer) while ignoring other studies that point otherwise. There is by no means agreement that there is a meaningful unremoved UHI bias in land temperatures in the surface record. Indeed, Spencer et al. (2025) only examines raw temperature records and gets a result comparable to that found by Hausfather et al. (2013), but does not do the follow up analysis of homogenised temperature records to see if the UHI bias has been effectively detected and removed (as Hausfather et al. (2013) find that it was). The analysis in this section also ignores independent assessments by AIRS satellites (global; Susskind et al. (2019)) and the US Climate Reference Network (US; Hausfather et al. (2016)) that show the same rate of warming as the full land station network during the period of overlap, suggesting minimal UHI biases in recent decades. Finally, this section on UHI never bothers to point out that the world is mostly oceans, so even a significant (>10%) bias in land temperatures, if it existed, would have a much smaller effect on resulting global surface temperatures.

Quote given to Carbon Brief

Supporting evidence

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Part II: Climate response to CO2 emissions

4.2 Model-based estimates of climate sensitivity

Page 27

FALSE

AR6 (2021) did not rely on climate model simulations in their assessment of climate sensitivity, relying instead on data-driven methods.

Anonymous

AR6 used multiple lines of evidence in the assessment of climate sensitivity: Understanding of climate processes, the instrumental record, palaeoclimates and model-based emergent constraints. Indeed, the authors of the DoE report contradict their own claim four paragraphs later by saying: "For AR6, the IPCC placed primary weight on the results of Sherwood et al. (2020) that combined historical data and palaeoclimate proxies with the process-based approach." Sherwood et al (2020) used climate models as one of their lines of evidence.

Quote given to Carbon Brief

Supporting evidence

[[HYPERLINK "https://www.ipcc.ch/report/ar6/wg1/chapter/summary-for-policymakers/"](https://www.ipcc.ch/report/ar6/wg1/chapter/summary-for-policymakers/) \h]

4.3 Data-driven estimates of climate sensitivity

Page 28

MISLEADING

Most climate models simulate that rising GHGs will weaken the west-east temperature gradient, which led the IPCC in AR6 to conclude that data-driven ECS estimates understated the future ECS value. However, Seager et al. (2019) pointed out that, contrary to models, the west-east temperature gradient has been strengthening over time. They further argued that the mechanism predicting otherwise in climate models was based on a faulty characterisation of oceanic dynamics and there is no reason to expect the gradient to weaken. A similar argument was recently made by Lee et al. (2024), who concluded that “the trajectory of the observed trend reflects the response to increasing GHG loading in the atmosphere”; in other words, GHG warming should lead to a future strengthening rather than a weakening of the temperature gradient. Increased efficiency of atmospheric cooling implies, if anything, that the future ECS in a warming climate might be lower than current estimates.

[[HYPERLINK "https://ocp.ldeo.columbia.edu/res/div/ocp/people/seager/" \h](https://ocp.ldeo.columbia.edu/res/div/ocp/people/seager/)],
Ewing Lamont research professor, Columbia University

The report is right to point out that we have drawn attention to the fact that the observed gradient has been strengthening while models robustly predict a weakening in response to rising GHGs. The report is also right that we suggested models get the response wrong due to biases in how they simulate the tropical Pacific Ocean...But inferences on the relation between SST, radiation and climate sensitivity for the short time period (strongly influenced by natural internal variability) are not readily transferable to understand these relations for the forced response in the gradient. I don't think we know what

the implications for climate sensitivity are of the problem models have in reproducing the observed pattern of tropical Pacific SST change.

Quote given to Carbon Brief

4.3 Data-driven estimates of climate sensitivity

Page 28

MISLEADING

An argument emphasised in AR6 is that data-driven ECS estimates might understate the future warming response to GHGs because of a so-called “pattern effect” (Forster et al. (2021)). The tropical Pacific is believed to strongly influence the overall efficiency with which the Earth radiates heat to space, but some regions remove heat more efficiently than others. If the west-to-east temperature gradient in the tropical Pacific is weakened in a warming climate, warming would concentrate where heat is less efficiently removed, raising ECS.

[[HYPERLINK "https://environment.leeds.ac.uk/see/staff/1267/professor-piers-forster"](https://environment.leeds.ac.uk/see/staff/1267/professor-piers-forster) \h], professor of climate physics, University of Leeds

The citation is ok, but rather offhand and dismissive, given the large amount of evidence assessed on the pattern effect in the IPCC report – it’s my chapter 7 which is cited. I also find that the literature on the pattern effect which the section...goes on to discuss is skewed and biased towards suggesting a small GHG cooling. It is especially missing a lot of other literature with conflicting evidence. Lots of literature that we cite in the IPCC report and evidence published since – including my own work – suggests a real pattern effect and

high climate sensitivity. If you are going to present conflicting arguments to my IPCC chapter produced by many international authors and three rounds of peer review, including multiple government reviews, I think you would need to explain where these other studies we referenced in IPCC go wrong. I therefore find their argument weak.

Quote given to Carbon Brief

Supporting evidence

[[HYPERLINK "https://www.ipcc.ch/report/ar6/wg1/chapter/chapter-7/" \h](https://www.ipcc.ch/report/ar6/wg1/chapter/chapter-7/)]

4.3 Data-driven estimates of climate sensitivity

Page 28

MISLEADING

A similar argument was recently made by Lee et al. (2024), who concluded that “the trajectory of the observed trend reflects the response to increasing GHG loading in the atmosphere”; in other words, GHG warming should lead to a future strengthening rather than a weakening of the temperature gradient. Increased efficiency of atmospheric cooling implies, if anything, that the future ECS in a warming climate might be lower than current estimates.

[[HYPERLINK "https://www.ems.psu.edu/directory/sukyoung-lee" \h](https://www.ems.psu.edu/directory/sukyoung-lee)], distinguished professor of meteorology

The report cited my article out of context. Current climate models predict tropical Pacific sea surface temperature (SST) gradients that do not align with observational trends, whereas the simple model used in my study does. This does not mean that the climate models have no value for predicting the effects

of human activities on future climates. My study simply identified one specific aspect where models may need to be improved to make the predictions more accurate.

Quote given to Carbon Brief

Supporting evidence

[[HYPERLINK "https://link.springer.com/article/10.1007/s00382-023-06741-7"](https://link.springer.com/article/10.1007/s00382-023-06741-7) \h]

5.5 Stratospheric cooling

Page 38

MISLEADING

An important element of the expected general “fingerprint” of anthropogenic climate change is simultaneous warming of the troposphere and cooling of the stratosphere. The latter feature is also influenced by ozone depletion and recovery. AR6 acknowledged that cooling had been observed but only until the year 2000. The stratosphere has shown some warming since, contrary to model projections.

[[HYPERLINK "https://diagrammonkey.wordpress.com/about/"](https://diagrammonkey.wordpress.com/about/) \h], climate scientist

“The poverty of their viewpoint is exemplified in the section on ‘stratospheric cooling’ about one-third of which consists of a long quote from the IPCC AR6 WG1 chapter 2, enough to cite a description of how stratospheric temperatures have changed, but completely ignoring the section on the causes which can be found in section 3.3.1.2.2 of the IPCC WG1 report...They can’t even be bothered to finish the one additional quote that takes up much of the rest of the section,

the one from Philipona et al. (2018). The quote, which is from the abstract is cut short with a full stop, where the abstract goes on, after a comma, to say: 'which is consistent with a reversal from ozone depletion to recovery from the effects of ozone-depleting substances.' In other words, it's not that simple and the report relies for its effect on you not digging any further, not even the tiniest little bit."

Quote from [[HYPERLINK "https://diagrammonkey.wordpress.com/2025/08/01/nothing-every-changes-except-the-climate/"](https://diagrammonkey.wordpress.com/2025/08/01/nothing-every-changes-except-the-climate/) \h]

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5.5 Stratospheric cooling

Page 39

MISLEADING

A combination of tropospheric warming and stratospheric cooling is a commonly cited “fingerprint” of anthropogenic climate change. Stratospheric warming since 2000 coincides with continued surface and tropospheric warming, a pattern that is not found in climate model simulations and is not apparently consistent with the anthropogenic fingerprint.

[[HYPERLINK "https://pcmdi.llnl.gov/staff/santer/" \h \]](https://pcmdi.llnl.gov/staff/santer/), atmospheric scientist, Lawrence Livermore National Laboratory

The DoE claim is not true. Climate models can and do show recovery of lower stratospheric temperature after 2000 in response to ozone recovery (and in

accord with satellite observations). Over the full satellite era (1986 to 2024), models show very large cooling of the mid- to upper stratosphere in response to human-caused changes in CO₂ and ozone (see Fig. 1 in the appended paper). The observed vertical structure of atmospheric temperature change IS consistent with model predictions and with basic theory. The DoE report cites the appended 2023 Santer et al. PNAS paper as "evidence of absence" of a human fingerprint on the vertical structure of atmospheric temperature. Our 2023 paper actually provides strong evidence FOR the positive identification of this human fingerprint in satellite data.

Quote given to Carbon Brief

Supporting evidence

[[HYPERLINK "https://www.pnas.org/doi/10.1073/pnas.2300758120"](https://www.pnas.org/doi/10.1073/pnas.2300758120) \h]

5.8 US corn belt

Page 42

FALSE

One of the largest discrepancies between models and observations is in the US corn belt, a region of particular importance to global food production. Figure 5.9 shows the warming trends for summertime (June, July, August) for the 12-state corn belt (IN, IA, IL, ND, SD, MO, MN, WI, MI, OH, KS, NE) during 1973-2022. All 36 climate models (red) warm far too rapidly compared to observations (blue).

[[HYPERLINK "https://www.iri-thesys.org/people-pages/delphine-deryng-dr/"](https://www.iri-thesys.org/people-pages/delphine-deryng-dr/) \h], lead author, IPCC AR6 WG2

There is no source for this and no methodological description. I don't believe the comparison between models and observation is correct.

Quote given to Carbon Brief

5.8 US corn belt

Page 43

MISLEADING

As discussed in Chapter 9, the anticipated negative effects of increasing temperatures on US corn yields have not materialised, in contrast to widely publicised studies proclaiming that theoretical future impacts are already being experienced (e.g., Seager et al. (2018))

[[HYPERLINK "https://ocp.ldeo.columbia.edu/res/div/ocp/people/seager/" \h](https://ocp.ldeo.columbia.edu/res/div/ocp/people/seager/)],
Ewing Lamont research professor, Columbia University

Our 2018 paper referred to changes in aridity and implications for what crops are grown and farm size and was not about corn yields. We suggest that changes patterns and values of precipitation and potential evapotranspiration would increase aridity over most of the US, which would, in the absence of adaptation, restrict corn cultivation to regions further east. But neither part of the two-part paper claims yields are reducing already due to climate change.

Quote given to Carbon Brief

Supporting evidence

[[HYPERLINK "https://journals.ametsoc.org/view/journals/eint/22/5/ei-d-17-0012.1.xml" \h](https://journals.ametsoc.org/view/journals/eint/22/5/ei-d-17-0012.1.xml)]

6 Extreme weather

Pages 57-82

MISLEADING

Section 6

[[HYPERLINK "https://emanuel.mit.edu/" \h](https://emanuel.mit.edu/)], professor emeritus of atmospheric science, Massachusetts Institute of Technology

The authors begin sensibly, in the introduction, stating that: ‘Climate is about the statistical properties of weather over decades, not single events. Further, there are only about 130 years of reliable observational records that can be analysed statistically. That brief interval does not begin to contain all the extreme events that the climate system can create on its own.’ It is odd, then, that they proceed to present timeseries of even shorter length and claim not to find trends of extreme events in them, thereby leading the reader to conclude that there are no underlying trends. They should have just stuck with their original statement and made the correct conclusion that observations usually do not suffice to detect extreme event trends of the predicted magnitude, and then turned to an exposition of what theory and models have to say.

It is very odd that there is almost no mention of theory and models [for] extreme events... Global climate data clearly and unequivocally show this bound increasing in virtually all of the tropical cyclone genesis regions. And, contrary to the statement in the DoE report, an upward trend in the proportion of very strong hurricanes HAS been detected and published. But instead of citing any of this, these authors violate their own introductory statement by citing short

and generally unreliable records. For example, they state correctly that there is no detectable trend in continental US hurricane landfalls. But at an average of three landfalling storms per year, there are not nearly enough data to detect a trend of the predicted magnitude. Given that the Caribbean region had a high population density (and associated newspaper accounts) going back to the early 19th century, they could have looked at ALL Atlantic landfalls, not just the US. Had they done so, they would have discovered a clear upward trend.

Quote from [[HYPERLINK "https://science.feedback.org/review/misleading-u-s-department-energy-climate-report-chooses-bias-over-science-climate-scientists-say/"](https://science.feedback.org/review/misleading-u-s-department-energy-climate-report-chooses-bias-over-science-climate-scientists-say/) \h]

6 Extreme weather

Pages 57-82

MISLEADING

Section 6

[[HYPERLINK "https://iac.ethz.ch/people-iac/person-detail.html?persid=54778"](https://iac.ethz.ch/people-iac/person-detail.html?persid=54778) \h], head of Institute for Atmospheric and Climate Science, ETH Zurich

The text of chapter 6 often cites chapter 11 of the IPCC AR6, but is a clear example of cherry-picking. The authors repeatedly highlight low-confidence statements from the IPCC AR6 chapter 11 on changes in climate extremes which are mostly on side topics of little relevance, but they rarely cite any high confidence statements from that chapter.

Quote given to Carbon Brief

Supporting evidence

[[HYPERLINK "https://www.ipcc.ch/report/ar6/wg1/chapter/chapter-11/"](https://www.ipcc.ch/report/ar6/wg1/chapter/chapter-11/) \h]
<https://interactive.carbonbrief.org/doe-factcheck/index.html>

6 Extreme weather

Page 46

MISLEADING

Most types of extreme weather exhibit no statistically significant long-term trends over the available historical record.

[[HYPERLINK "https://iac.ethz.ch/people-iac/person-detail.html?persid=54778"](https://iac.ethz.ch/people-iac/person-detail.html?persid=54778) \h], head of Institute for Atmospheric and Climate Science, ETH Zurich

Importantly, there is no evidence substantiating the claim of the authors of this DOE "critical review" that "most types of extreme weather exhibit no statistically significant long-term trends over the available historical record". It is not clear which types of "extreme weather" the authors refer to, which region(s) they are referring to, and what is the demonstration underlying the claim that "most" of these types exhibit no statistically significant long-term trends. I would ask the authors to provide the arguments substantiating this claim, as there is no rationale provided for this statement in the chapter.

I would also highlight the following conclusions from the IPCC AR6 chapter 11 which provide a very different collective assessment:

- "It is an established fact that human-induced greenhouse gas emissions have led to an increased frequency and/or intensity of some weather and climate extremes since pre-industrial time, in particular for temperature extremes."
- "Human-induced greenhouse gas forcing is the main driver of the observed changes in hot and cold extremes on the global scale (virtually certain)."

- "The frequency and intensity of heavy precipitation events have likely increased at the global scale over a majority of land regions with good observational coverage. Heavy precipitation has likely increased on the continental scale over three continents: North America, Europe, and Asia."
- "More regions are affected by increases in agricultural and ecological droughts with increasing global warming (high confidence)."
- "It is likely that the global proportion of Category 3–5 tropical cyclone instances has increased over the past four decades."

Quote given to Carbon Brief

Supporting evidence

[[HYPERLINK "https://www.ipcc.ch/report/ar6/wg1/chapter/chapter-11/" \h](https://www.ipcc.ch/report/ar6/wg1/chapter/chapter-11/)]

6.2 Temperature extremes

Pages 63-71

MISLEADING

Section 6.3

[[HYPERLINK](https://usys.ethz.ch/en/people/profile.MTE5NTkw.TG1zdC82MzcsMzIwMTk3MjIy.html)

"https://usys.ethz.ch/en/people/profile.MTE5NTkw.TG1zdC82MzcsMzIwMTk3MjIy.html" \h], lecturer at the department of environmental systems science, ETH Zurich

The section on hot extremes is an extreme example of cherry-picking results. The report fails to acknowledge that the highlighted regions are some of the very few regions globally where the annual maximum temperatures have not

increased (see e.g. IPCC AR6 WG1 Fig. SPM3). The report further highlights that in some regions the number of hottest days have not increased, yet omits that

the hottest nights have increased over the same regions and periods (see figure 2.7 in the fifth US National Climate Assessment). Furthermore, the temperature of the warmest nights shows a positive trend over recent decades (Singh et al. 2023). The report further fails to refer to the extensive literature discussing the role of land-use changes and irrigation (Mueller et al. (2016)), aerosol forcing (Mascioli et al. (2017)) and unforced internal variability (Singh et al. (2023)) to the regions with little trends.

Quote given to Carbon Brief

Supporting evidence

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6.8 Wildfires

Page 70

MISLEADING

Nonetheless just focusing on the post-1985 interval the number of fires [in the US] is not increasing. The area burned did increase but only until about 2007.

[[HYPERLINK "https://www.aparkwilliams.com/" \h](https://www.aparkwilliams.com/)], hydroclimatologist,
University of California

The report's section on wildfire lumps the entire US together, smearing out what's going on in the western contiguous US despite the fact that it's the rapidly increasing western US wildfire activity that necessitates this report's

wildfire section in the first place. On whether the area burnt in US forest fires has not increased: This is absolutely not the case in the western US, which is again the region that motivates most concerns about wildfire trends in the US. In the western US, the annual area burned has tripled over the past 40 years, driven by a 10-fold increase in annual forest-fire area and a doubling of area burned in non-forest. The western US forest-fire area in 2020 nearly doubled the previous modern record (from 2012) and then 2021 nearly matched 2020. The increase in area burned did not come even close to ending in 2007 in the western US.

On whether fire management practices are responsible for US wildfire trends: Beginning roughly a century ago, the widespread implementation of fire-suppression policies allowed people to effectively take control of wildfire in the western US, but over the past several decades the annual area burned has quickly escalated despite ever intensifying and efforts toward fire suppression. That is, today's concern over wildfire shouldn't depend on how fires of today compare to those of the pre-suppression era, but should instead be related to how the rapidly increasing wildfire sizes in the western US today are occurring despite society's best efforts to avoid such a trend. Further, it's not simply the growing sizes of fires that are of concern. Fire size is simply easy to measure reliably. But as fires have grown larger, they have increasingly put people and property in the paths of flames, had such a negative impact on air quality that trends toward cleaner air since the 1980s have reversed even across much of the eastern US, and rapid increases in the extents of forest area burning at high severities have endangered many forest ecosystems despite fire being a natural ecosystem process."

Quote from [[HYPERLINK "https://science.feedback.org/review/misleading-u-s-department-energy-climate-report-chooses-bias-over-science-climate-scientists-say/"](https://science.feedback.org/review/misleading-u-s-department-energy-climate-report-chooses-bias-over-science-climate-scientists-say/)] \h]

7 Changes in sea level

Page 75

FALSE

In evaluating AR6 projections to 2050 (with reference to the baseline period 1995-2014), almost half of the interval has elapsed by 2025, with sea level rising at a lower rate than predicted.

[[HYPERLINK "https://www.pik-potsdam.de/~stefan/"](https://www.pik-potsdam.de/~stefan/) \h], professor of physics of the oceans, University of Potsdam

Possibly they ignored acceleration, an observed fact, thus assuming that in the first half of the period half of the projected rise should have occurred. But, of course, the IPCC projections account for acceleration, so less than half of the rise should have occurred until now. In fact, projecting sea level rise until 2050 just by extrapolating the observed rise, including the observed acceleration, matches almost exactly the IPCC projections even though these are made in a completely different way.

Looking at the data, for the intermediate point 2030, the AR6 predicts a best estimate 9-10cm, relative to the same base period 1995-2014 (Table 9.9 of AR6 WG1). The satellite data show a rise of 74mm from that base period until 2025. At the same rate, that will be 93mm by 2030, well within in the best-estimate prediction.

Quote given to Carbon Brief

Supporting evidence

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7 Changes in sea level

Page 75

FALSE

US tide gauge measurements reveal no obvious acceleration beyond the historical average rate of sea level rise.

[[HYPERLINK "https://www.pik-potsdam.de/~stefan/" \h](https://www.pik-potsdam.de/~stefan/)], professor of physics of the oceans, University of Potsdam

Most US tide gauges show acceleration, on the east coast that is statistically significant and larger than the global average acceleration, on the west coast less so.

Quote given to Carbon Brief

Supporting evidence

[[HYPERLINK "https://tamino.wordpress.com/2025/08/11/sea-level-rise-in-the-u-s-a/" \h](https://tamino.wordpress.com/2025/08/11/sea-level-rise-in-the-u-s-a/)]

7.1 Global sea level rise

Page 75

MISLEADING

Following the end of the Little Ice Age in the mid-19th century, tide gauges show that the global mean sea level began rising during the period 1820-1860, well before most anthropogenic greenhouse gas emissions.

[[HYPERLINK "https://www.pik-potsdam.de/~stefan/" \h](https://www.pik-potsdam.de/~stefan/)], professor of physics of the oceans, University of Potsdam

While it is true that that's before "most of" greenhouse gas emissions, it is unfair to compare the "start of" the rise with "most of" emissions. The industrial era is usually assumed to start in 1700 and CO2 concentration also starts to rise noticeably around 1820-1860, around the same time as sea level (see the Keeling curve).

Quote given to Carbon Brief

Supporting evidence

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8.3 Attribution of global warming

Page 84

MISLEADING

AR6 states that natural external drivers since 1850-1900 have changed global surface temperature by -0.1C to +0.1C, and internal variability has changed it by -0.2C to +0.2C – on average having essentially no net impact on the warming since 1850-1900.

[[HYPERLINK "https://www.mps.mpg.de/solar-physics/staff/27560"](https://www.mps.mpg.de/solar-physics/staff/27560) \h],
astrophysicist, Max Planck Institute for Solar System Research

The AR6 report presents this in Fig. SPM.2 as "Aggregated contributions to 2010-2019 warming relative to 1850-1900". This refers to the net effect of

various climate drivers on global surface temperature between these two periods, not the maximum changes observed. The accompanying range represents the uncertainty in these estimates. It is therefore misleading to claim that AR6 asserts natural drivers have changed global temperature by $\pm 0.1^\circ\text{C}$ since 1850-1900. In reality, Fig. SPM.1 shows that natural variability has led to temperature fluctuations of up to $\pm 0.5^\circ\text{C}$ at different times, but the net contribution of natural drivers to long-term warming is estimated at around $\pm 0.1^\circ\text{C}$.

Quote given to Carbon Brief

Supporting evidence

[[HYPERLINK "https://www.ipcc.ch/report/ar6/wg1/chapter/summary-for-policymakers/" \h](https://www.ipcc.ch/report/ar6/wg1/chapter/summary-for-policymakers/)]

8.3 Attribution of global warming

Page 84

MISLEADING

As discussed below, this minimal contribution of natural variability has been disputed by several publications that question the magnitudes of solar variability and internal variability from large-scale ocean circulations.

[[HYPERLINK "https://www.mps.mpg.de/solar-physics/staff/27561" \h](https://www.mps.mpg.de/solar-physics/staff/27561)],

astrophysicist, Max Planck Institute for Solar System Research

This claim is supported by only a small number of studies that rely on cherry-picked, outdated, or scientifically implausible TSI reconstructions (e.g., Connolly et al. (2021) and (2023); Scafetta (2023); Soon et al. (2023); Grok et al.

(2025); and Green and Soon (2025)). All of these studies rely heavily on the Hoyt and Schatten (1993) TSI series, which has been extensively criticised and discredited by Chatzistergos (2024) for its arbitrary adjustments, methodological flaws and use of fabricated data. As such, these claims do not reflect a broadly accepted scientific view. The review by Chatzistergos et al. (2023) provides a comprehensive and up-to-date overview of our current understanding of long-term solar irradiance variations and also explains why the practices underlying such claims are scientifically flawed. I note that although the Chatzistergos et al. (2023) review is cited in the DoE report, it is referenced for an unrelated and irrelevant reason and its core content is disregarded.

Quote given to Carbon Brief

Supporting evidence

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8.3 Attribution of global warming

Page 84

MISLEADING

AR5 concluded that the best estimate of radiative forcing due to Total Solar Irradiance (TSI) changes over the period 1750–2011 was very small (0.05 W/m², Myrhe et al. (2014)).

[[HYPERLINK "https://www.mps.mpg.de/solar-physics/staff/27562"](https://www.mps.mpg.de/solar-physics/staff/27562) \h],
astrophysicist, Max Planck Institute for Solar System Research

This is an example of imprecise wording that could be misleading. In AR5, the solar radiative forcing difference between the 1745 and 2008 activity minima was estimated using TSI reconstructions from Wang et al. (2005), Steinhilber et al. (2009) and Krivova et al. (2010). These studies yielded a range of -0.02 to 0.071 Watts per metre squared (W/m²) for the difference (based on seven-year running means, with the caveat that the -0.02 W/m² value comes from Steinhilber et al. (2009), which has a five-year resolution and uses 1965 as the minimum). Based on these estimates, AR5 adopted a range of 0-0.1 W/m² with a central estimate of 0.05 W/m², as explicitly stated in Table 8.SM.4 of the report. However, AR6 defined solar forcing in a different way to reflect the difference between full solar cycles rather than solar minima, as noted in chapter 7 of the WG1 report. This change in methodology is not acknowledged in the DoE report, which may lead to misunderstandings or incorrect comparisons between AR5 and AR6 values.

Quote given to Carbon Brief

Supporting evidence

[[HYPERLINK "https://www.ipcc.ch/site/assets/uploads/2018/07/WGI_AR5.Chap_8_SM.pdf"](https://www.ipcc.ch/site/assets/uploads/2018/07/WGI_AR5.Chap_8_SM.pdf) \h]

8.3 Attribution of global warming

Page 84

MISLEADING

AR6 acknowledges substantially higher values and a much larger range of estimates of changes in TSI over the last several centuries, stating that the TSI between the Maunder Minimum (1645-1715) and the second half of the 20th

century increased by 0.7–2.7 W/m², a range that includes both low and high variability TSI data sets (Gulev (2021)).

[[HYPERLINK "https://www.mps.mpg.de/solar-physics/staff/27561"](https://www.mps.mpg.de/solar-physics/staff/27561) \h],
astrophysicist, Max Planck Institute for Solar System Research

The sentence is vague (in particular as to what they refer with "higher values") and potentially conflates two related but distinct concepts: radiative forcing and TSI differences, which were both mentioned but not clearly distinguished. Considering that the previous sentence discusses radiative forcing, one can assume that with "higher values" they refer to radiative forcing too, which would make the statement false. This is easily understood by comparing the statements in AR6 and AR5 about the range of solar radiative forcing.

The AR6 WG1 report (page 958) states:

"In contrast to AR5, the solar effective radiative forcing (ERF) in this assessment uses full solar cycles rather than solar minima. The pre-industrial TSI is defined as the mean from all complete solar cycles from the start of the 14C SATIRE-M proxy record in 6755 BCE to 1744 CE. The mean TSI from solar cycle 24 (2009–2019) is adopted as the assessment period for 2019. The best estimate solar ERF is assessed to be 0.01 W/m², using the 14C reconstruction from SATIRE-M, with a likely range of -0.06 to +0.08 W/m² (medium confidence). The uncertainty range is adopted from the evaluation of Lockwood and Ball (2020), who performed a Monte Carlo analysis of solar activity from the Maunder Minimum to 2019 using several datasets, resulting in an ERF range of -0.12 to +0.15 W/m². The Lockwood and Ball (2020) full uncertainty range is halved since the period of reduced solar activity in the Maunder

Minimum had ended by 1750 (medium confidence)." By comparison, the AR5 WGI report (page 689) states:

"The best estimate from our assessment of the most reliable TSI reconstruction gives a seven-year running mean radiative forcing (RF) between the minima of 1745 and 2008 of 0.05 W/m². Our assessment of the range of RF from TSI changes is 0.0 to 0.10 W/m²."

Thus, the solar radiative forcing estimates in AR5 and AR6 are broadly consistent, with AR6's best estimate slightly lower. If the statement instead refers to TSI differences, this would also be misleading. The AR6 WGI (page 297) lists a TSI difference between the Maunder Minimum and the second half of the 20th century ranging from 0.7 to 2.7 W/m². The lower bound likely corresponds to the SATIRE-T reconstruction, while the upper bound comes from the Yeo et al. (2020) constraint on the dimmest possible state of the sun. It is important to note that Yeo et al. (2020) does not reconstruct TSI during the Maunder Minimum but rather provides a theoretical constraint on the minimum plausible solar irradiance. This constraint effectively excludes TSI reconstructions with large amplitude variability, such as Egorova et al. (2018). Almost all current TSI reconstructions indicate significantly smaller long-term TSI trends (Chatzistergos et al. (2023)). These include the SATIRE and NRL (now NNL) models recommended for CMIP6 and AR6.

Quote given to Carbon Brief

Supporting evidence

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8.3 Attribution of global warming

Page 84

FALSE

The IPCC has only minimally discussed solar influences on global and regional climate.

[[HYPERLINK "http://www.personal.reading.ac.uk/~ym901336/index.html" \h](http://www.personal.reading.ac.uk/~ym901336/index.html)], professor of space environment physics and president of the Royal Astronomical Society, University of Reading

Contrary to this statement, there is much discussion in the last three IPCC assessment reports.

Quote given to Carbon Brief

Supporting evidence

[[HYPERLINK "https://www.ipcc.ch/report/ar6/wg1/chapter/chapter-7/" \h](https://www.ipcc.ch/report/ar6/wg1/chapter/chapter-7/)]

8.3 Attribution of global warming

Page 85

MISLEADING

There is substantial evidence for high solar activity in the second half of the 20th century (starting in 1959) and extending into the 1990s, before a decline in the early 21st century; this period is often termed the “Modern Maximum” (Chatzistergos et al. (2023); Solanki et al. (2004); Usoskin et al. (2007)).

However, some scientists have concluded that it is not possible to be confident

of any multi-decadal trend in TSI (Schmutz (2021)).

[[HYPERLINK "https://www.mps.mpg.de/person/27558/2169"](https://www.mps.mpg.de/person/27558/2169) \h],

astrophysicist, Max Planck Institute for Solar System Research

“Although the sentence in which they cite us is factually accurate in isolation, the surrounding text creates a misleading impression. More importantly, our review paper, which they cited, explains why their subsequent paragraph has misleading and wrong statements.”

Quote from [[HYPERLINK "https://bsky.app/profile/damagedonegr.bsky.social"](https://bsky.app/profile/damagedonegr.bsky.social) \h]

Supporting evidence

[[HYPERLINK "https://www.sciencedirect.com/science/article/abs/pii/S1364682623001487?via%3Dihub"](https://www.sciencedirect.com/science/article/abs/pii/S1364682623001487?via%3Dihub) \h]

8.3 Attribution of global warming

Page 85

MISLEADING

However, the recommended forcing dataset for the CMIP6 climate model simulations used in AR6 for attribution studies averages two data sets with low solar variability (Matthes (2017)).

[[HYPERLINK "https://www.mps.mpg.de/solar-physics/staff/27558"](https://www.mps.mpg.de/solar-physics/staff/27558) \h],

astrophysicist, Max Planck Institute for Solar System Research

This sentence creates a misleading impression that, although AR6 acknowledged the possibility of high secular trends in total solar irradiance (TSI), it arbitrarily dismissed them in favor of two TSI reconstructions with relatively low variability. In fact, the 2.7 W/m² figure cited in AR6 should not be

interpreted as an actual historical TSI difference between the Maunder Minimum and the present, but rather as a physical upper bound on the maximum plausible difference between the sun's dimmest possible state and its current irradiance. Importantly, the Maunder Minimum is unlikely to represent this dimmest state and modern TSI reconstructions suggest a substantially smaller long-term trend than what a 2.7 W/m² Maunder-to-present difference would imply. This upper limit, derived from Yeo et al. (2020), effectively excludes high-variability TSI reconstructions that exceed this threshold. For this reason, the CMIP6 and IPCC AR6 selected two TSI reconstructions, SATIRE (Yeo et al. (2014) and Wu et al. (2018)) and NRLTSI (now referred to as NNLSI, Coddington et al. (2016), not based on their implied variability magnitude, but because they represent the most advanced, scientifically robust, and rigorously validated models currently available (Matthes et al. (2017)). SATIRE is a semi-empirical, physics-based model, whereas NRLTSI is a proxy-based regression model. Both have undergone extensive scrutiny and show excellent agreement with direct satellite measurements of TSI.

Quote given to Carbon Brief

Supporting evidence

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8.3 Attribution of global warming

Page 85

MISLEADING

While AR6 shows a substantially greater solar impact than does AR5, the overall impact of solar forcing on the climate was still assessed to be small compared to anthropogenic forcing.

[[HYPERLINK "https://www.mps.mpg.de/solar-physics/staff/27558" \h](https://www.mps.mpg.de/solar-physics/staff/27558)],
astrophysicist, Max Planck Institute for Solar System Research

The statement is vague and unclear in what it means by “AR6 shows a substantially greater solar impact than AR5”, especially since the same sentence acknowledges that solar forcing was assessed to be small compared to anthropogenic forcing, implying a correspondingly small solar impact. This apparent contradiction likely stems from confusion on the part of the DoE authors regarding the distinction between radiative forcing and total solar irradiance (TSI) differences as presented in AR5 and AR6, as discussed in previous comments.

Quote given to Carbon Brief

8.3 Attribution of global warming

Page 85

MISLEADING

However, the impact of solar variations on the climate is uncertain and subject to substantial debate (Lockwood (2012); Connolly et al. (2021)) - something that is not evident in the IPCC assessment reports.

[[HYPERLINK "https://www.mps.mpg.de/solar-physics/staff/27559"](https://www.mps.mpg.de/solar-physics/staff/27559) \h],
astrophysicist, Max Planck Institute for Solar System Research

AR6 acknowledges the high-variability reconstruction by Egorova et al. (2018) and references studies by Yeo et al. (2020) and Lockwood & Ball (2020), discussing the inherent uncertainty in estimating the secular trend in solar irradiance variations. The earlier study by Lockwood (2012) is not included because its findings are superseded by the more recent Lockwood & Ball (2020). Mike Lockwood was actually one of the contributors to AR6. Thus, IPCC AR6 did adequately discuss the existing uncertainty in irradiance modelling and, thus, its effects on Earth's climate. However, what the authors of the DoE report seem to mean with this sentence is that AR6 does not discuss the Connolly et al. (2021) study. It is worth repeating that the Connolly et al. (2021) paper gave a misleading presentation of the literature. In particular, Connolly et al. (2021) cherry-picked 16 TSI reconstructions, deliberately balancing the sample by including eight with small long-term trends and eight with pronounced trends. However, their inclusion of several outdated or discredited models within the high-variability group is misleading, particularly given the DoE chapter summary's claim that all selected reconstructions are plausible (Chatzistergos et al. (2023) and Chatzistergos (2024)).

As noted in previous comments, the issues with Connolly et al. (2021) undermine the credibility of their results. While there is legitimate uncertainty about the exact magnitude of long-term solar irradiance trends, Connolly et al. (2021) exaggerated the solar impact by cherry-picking outdated and superseded series that display implausibly large TSI variations.

Quote given to Carbon Brief

Supporting evidence

[Link1](#)

[Link2](#)

[Link3](#)

8.3 Attribution of global warming

Page 85

MISLEADING

There are several rival composite TSI datasets that disagree as to whether TSI increased or decreased during the period 1986-96.

[[HYPERLINK "https://www.mps.mpg.de/solar-physics/staff/27559"](https://www.mps.mpg.de/solar-physics/staff/27559) \h],

astrophysicist, Max Planck Institute for Solar System Research

It is also important to note that the effect of ACRIM-gap in the trends of the different TSI composites is generally small (Chatzistergos et al. (2023) and Kopp (2025)). While the issue with ACRIM does contribute to the uncertainty in the long-term trend of direct TSI measurements, a growing body of evidence challenges the notion of a TSI increase during the ACRIM-gap, evidence which the DoE report entirely overlooks. Notable examples include Amdur & Huybers (2023), Chatzistergos et al. (2025) and Krivova et al. (2009). By having given such emphasis on the ACRIM-gap the DoE report gives the misleading impression that there can be significant increase in TSI, which could account for the global warming over the same period. Thus, this statement can be misleading.

Quote given to Carbon Brief

Supporting evidence

[Link1](#)

[Link2](#)

[Link3](#)

[HYPERLINK "https://doi.org/10.1007/s41116-025-00040-5" \h]

8.3 Attribution of global warming

Page 85

MISLEADING

Further, the satellite record of TSI is used to calibrate proxy models that infer past solar variations from sunspots and cosmogenic isotope measurements (Velasco Herrera et al. (2015)).

[HYPERLINK "https://www.mps.mpg.de/solar-physics/staff/27560" \h],

astrophysicist, Max Planck Institute for Solar System Research

There are several issues with this sentence, particularly concerning the choice of the sole reference, which may mislead readers into believing that existing total solar irradiance (TSI) reconstructions depend heavily on direct TSI measurements for determining long-term trends. This is generally incorrect. Moreover, the phrasing gives the impression that only proxy models exist, overlooking the important class of physics-based semi-empirical models.

1) Missing relevant literature: The statement omits key papers on irradiance reconstruction models (e.g., Coddington et al. (2016); Wu et al. (2018); and Chatzistergos et al. (2024)) and authoritative reviews (e.g., Chatzistergos et al. (2023) and (2024); and Solanki et al. (2013)) that provide a more accurate and

comprehensive perspective.

2) Choice of reference: The DoE cites only Velasco Herrera et al. (2015) to support the claim, which is problematic. That work is not an irradiance reconstruction model but a machine learning extrapolation inherently dependent on the chosen TSI reference series. Given the chaotic nature of solar activity, such extrapolations from limited data lack scientific merit (see Petrovay (2020)). Moreover, the predictions from Velasco Herrera et al. (2015) for 2015–25 are already contradicted by actual direct TSI measurements obtained since.

3) Proxy models: These reconstruct irradiance variations by scaling or regressing solar activity indices against reference TSI data. While the choice of reference series can influence results depending on the regression method, the effect is not always big. For example, Chatzistergos et al. (2020) demonstrated that the choice of TSI reference has negligible impact on minimum-to-minimum trends in their regression model. Similarly, Figure 7c in Chatzistergos et al. (2024) shows only a minor effect of different TSI references on their century-long TSI reconstruction.

4) We have not only proxy models but also physics-based semi-empirical models. Models such as SATIRE and SRPM do rely on tuning some free parameters by comparison to direct TSI measurements. However, this tuning does not significantly affect the long-term trends, as shown in multiple studies (e.g., Chatzistergos et al. (2021)). Notably, Chatzistergos et al. (2025) explicitly states about their irradiance reconstruction with SATIRE-S that "the trend in the updated SATIRE-S TSI composite is independent of measured TSI".

Quote given to Carbon Brief

Supporting evidence

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8.3 Attribution of global warming

Page 85

MISLEADING

There is substantial evidence for high solar activity in the second half of the 20th century (starting in 1959) and extending into the 1990s, before a decline in the early 21st century; this period is often termed the "Modern Maximum." (Chatzistergos et al. (2023); Solanki et al. (2004); Usoskin et al. (2007))

[[HYPERLINK "https://www.mps.mpg.de/solar-physics/staff/27566"](https://www.mps.mpg.de/solar-physics/staff/27566) \h],
astrophysicist, Max Planck Institute for Solar System Research

The citation of Chatzistergos et al. (2023) in support of the statement about the "Grand Modern Maximum" of solar activity is somewhat misleading. First, the cited paper is a review focused specifically on solar irradiance modeling and long-term trends in irradiance reconstructions. The Grand Modern Maximum is mentioned only briefly in the introduction and is not a subject of analysis in the paper. Moreover, the concept of the Grand Modern Maximum is primarily based on direct sunspot observations, as discussed in works such as Chatzistergos et al. (2017) and Usoskin et al. (2016), which is clearly stated in

Chatzistergos et al. (2023), but omitted in the DoE report. The other two studies cited in the DoE, Solanki et al. (2004) and Usoskin et al. (2007), inferred this period in sunspot number series reconstructed from cosmogenic isotope data. However, these data do not cover the full extent of the modern maximum, and the connection between isotope-based and direct sunspot records remains uncertain. Recent reconstructions like Wu et al. (2018; where both Sami K. Solanki and Ilya G. Usoskin are co-authors) continue to support the existence of a Grand Modern Maximum, but suggest it was less pronounced than earlier assumed.

I presume the authors do not include this study because it was used to reconstruct irradiance variations and returned a rather small secular trend, which would conflict with the claim they want to make here. It is important to recognise that elevated sunspot activity during the second half of the 20th century does not, on its own, determine how much solar irradiance increased, as information on faculae is also essential. Irradiance variations are driven not only by sunspots but also by faculae and network magnetic features.

Unfortunately, direct facular observations only extend back to 1892, and their use prior to the 1970s has been rather limited. Consequently, reconstructing past irradiance variations requires assumptions about the relationship between sunspots and faculae, which introduces uncertainty into estimates of the secular trend. However, recent efforts to extract facular information from Ca II K observations (e.g., Chatzistergos et al. (2024)) and to extend irradiance reconstructions back to 1892 indicate only a minimal long-term trend over the 20th century, consistent with state-of-the-art reconstructions such as SATIRE. As mentioned above also updated reconstructions with cosmogenic isotope data (Wu et al. (2018)) suggest a rather small long-term trend. None of this

context is provided in the DoE report, resulting in a potentially oversimplified or overstated implication that a large secular trend is more likely, despite the balance of current evidence.

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8.3 Attribution of global warming

Page 85

MISLEADING

However, some scientists have concluded that it is not possible to be confident of any multi-decadal trend in TSI (Schmutz, 2021).

[[HYPERLINK "https://www.mps.mpg.de/solar-physics/staff/27567"](https://www.mps.mpg.de/solar-physics/staff/27567) \h],
astrophysicist, Max Planck Institute for Solar System Research

This statement is misleading because it refers to section 3 of Schmutz (2021),

which focuses on direct measurements of solar irradiance only since 1978, whereas the DoE report in the previous sentence was discussing the grand modern maximum and thus longer-term trends beyond the period covered by direct TSI measurements. Furthermore, the uncertainty in determining the long-term trend, both from direct measurements and modeled reconstructions, is widely acknowledged in the scientific literature and is not limited to a small

group of scientists. Nevertheless, all current evidence and advances consistently indicate a relatively weak secular trend in total solar irradiance (TSI) variations.

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8.3 Attribution of global warming

Page 85

MISLEADING

This uncertainty causes some reconstructions of TSI from 1750 to have low variability (implying a very low impact of solar variations on global mean surface temperature) whereas datasets with high TSI variability can explain more than 70% of the temperature variability since pre-industrial times (Scafetta (2013); Stefani (2021)).

[[HYPERLINK "https://www.mps.mpg.de/solar-physics/staff/27558"](https://www.mps.mpg.de/solar-physics/staff/27558) \h],
astrophysicist, Max Planck Institute for Solar System Research

Neither of the two papers cited for the claim that "datasets with high TSI variability can explain more than 70% of the temperature variability since pre-industrial times". Stefani (2021) did not even use any TSI series; instead, he performed a linear regression between the geomagnetic aa-index and sea surface temperature. Scafetta (2013, p27) states: "Figure 15B compares the

Central England Temperature (CET) record and the TSI model by Hoyt and Schatten plus the ACRIM TSI record; an overall good correlation is observed since 1700, which suggests that the major observed climatic oscillations are solar induced and that the sun explains about 50-60% of the warming observed since 1900."

This raises two major concerns. First, the statement in the report is incorrect since neither Scafetta (2013) nor Stefani (2021) demonstrate that TSI can account for "more than 70% of the temperature variability since preindustrial times". Second, the conclusion by Scafetta (2013) relies on the Hoyt and Schatten (1993) TSI model after connecting it to the ACRIM TSI composite. The Hoyt and Schatten 1993 TSI model has been shown to be highly unrealistic and is now widely discredited (Chatzistergos (2024)). As detailed in Chatzistergos (2024), the Hoyt and Schatten model includes multiple arbitrary adjustments and fabricated data for one index spanning over a decade, which appear to have been copied from another index. Critically, the model's high variability was not a result of the model but was imposed by the authors. When updated underlying indices and direct TSI composites (e.g., PMOD, Montillet et al. (2022), ACRIM) are considered, it becomes clear that Hoyt and Schatten (1993) exaggerated TSI variation amplitudes by roughly a factor of five (Chatzistergos (2024)). The discrepancy is even greater when compared to the ACRIM TSI composite, which Hoyt and Schatten's model is incompatible with. This seriously undermines the reliability of conclusions drawn from the Hoyt and Schatten model for attributing recent climate change to solar variability.

Therefore, the two given references do not corroborate the claim of the DoE report. This statement likely originates from Connolly et al. (2023), but the

same criticisms previously discussed regarding Connolly et al. (2021) apply here as well. Connolly et al. (2021) and (2023) cherry-picked TSI reconstructions to amplify several outdated or discredited models with high secular trends. As noted in previous comments, these issues undermine the credibility of their results. While there is legitimate uncertainty about the exact magnitude of long-term solar irradiance trends, Connolly et al. (2021) and (2023) exaggerated the solar impact by cherry-picking outdated and superseded series that display implausibly large TSI variations.

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8.3 Attribution of global warming

Page 85

MISLEADING

The choice of TSI satellite record used in an analysis can therefore substantially influence how much climate change is attributed to human versus natural forcings.

[[HYPERLINK "https://www.mps.mpg.de/solar-physics/staff/27559"](https://www.mps.mpg.de/solar-physics/staff/27559) \h],
astrophysicist, Max Planck Institute for Solar System Research

This statement is misleading and confusing. First, the choice of TSI satellite record does not substantially influence the estimated solar contribution to

climate change; rather, it is the choice of modelled TSI series, which was the topic of the previous sentence, that can have an impact. Second, as explained above, the high-variability TSI reconstructions used by Connolly et al. (2021) and (2023) to attribute most warming to the Sun are outdated, superseded, and scientifically implausible. While there is indeed uncertainty regarding the long-term trend in solar irradiance, which naturally affects the precise estimate of solar-driven global warming, all current evidence indicates this contribution is relatively small. The sentence in the DoE report, however, dramatically exaggerates this uncertainty and its implications.

However, it is also possible that the authors of the DoE report intended to suggest that the choice of TSI satellite records influences the reconstruction outcomes and thus the estimated solar contribution to global warming. This interpretation would also be misleading, as explained earlier, but reiterated here:

1) While the choice of reference TSI series can affect proxy model results depending on the regression approach, this effect is often small. For example, Chatzistergos et al. (2020) demonstrated that the choice of TSI reference has a negligible impact on minimum-to-minimum trends in their regression model. Similarly, Figure 7c in Chatzistergos et al. (2024) shows only minor differences when using various TSI references in their century-long reconstruction.

2) This effect is typically negligible in physics-based semi-empirical models. Various studies have confirmed the minimal impact on SATIRE reconstructions when changing the reference TSI series (e.g., Chatzistergos et al. 2021). Notably, for the latest version of SATIRE-S, Chatzistergos et al. (2025) explicitly

state that "the trend in the updated SATIRE-S TSI composite is independent of measured TSI".

3) As mentioned earlier, the DoE authors cited Velasco Herrera et al. (2015) instead of irradiance reconstruction models, which may have caused the confusion. Velasco Herrera et al. (2015) presented a machine learning extrapolation that inherently depends on the chosen TSI reference series. Given the chaotic nature of solar activity, such limited-data extrapolations lack scientific robustness (see Petrovay (2020)). Moreover, Velasco Herrera et al. 2015 predictions for 2015-25 have already been contradicted by direct TSI measurements collected since.

Quote given to Carbon Brief

Supporting evidence

[[HYPERLINK "https://doi.org/10.1016/j.jastp.2023.106150" \h](https://doi.org/10.1016/j.jastp.2023.106150)]

8.3 Attribution of global warming

Page 85

FALSE

Scafetta et al. (2023) suggests that ~80% of solar influence on climate might stem from non-TSI mechanisms.

[[HYPERLINK "https://www.mps.mpg.de/solar-physics/staff/27559" \h](https://www.mps.mpg.de/solar-physics/staff/27559)],

astrophysicist, Max Planck Institute for Solar System Research

The reference is incorrect, there is no Scafetta et al. (2023); this should be Scafetta (2023). Although Scafetta (2023) indeed makes this claim, it is yet another such claim of attributing most global warming to the sun mainly based on the use of the discredited Hoyt and Schatten (1993) TSI series (Chatzistergos (2024)). Scafetta (2023) bases his analysis on a combination of three TSI series: Hoyt and Schatten (1993), Egorova et al. (2018) and the one recommended by CMIP6. Since the Hoyt and Schatten (1993) TSI series was not updated prior to Chatzistergos (2024), Scafetta extended it by linking it to the ACRIM TSI composite. Chatzistergos (2024) demonstrated that the high variability imposed by Hoyt and Schatten (1993) is inconsistent with direct TSI measurements and that a variability magnitude approximately five times smaller is required.

Additionally, Chatzistergos (2024) showed that the Hoyt and Schatten (1993) model conflicts particularly with the ACRIM composite by exhibiting opposite trends during the so-called ACRIM-gap, making Scafetta's extension of Hoyt and Schatten (1993) with ACRIM invalid. Thus, with Egorova et al. (2018) exceeding the Yeo et al. (2020) physical constraint, and considering the multiple methodological issues identified with the Hoyt and Schatten (1993) series (Chatzistergos (2024)), the resulting conclusions by Scafetta (2023) are unlikely. Furthermore, Scafetta himself acknowledged that even when allowing for solar effects beyond radiative forcing, the solar influence remains minimal with the CMIP6 TSI forcing. Therefore, the claim that solar influence accounts for more than 80% of warming is unsupported.

Quote given to Carbon Brief

Supporting evidence

[[HYPERLINK "https://doi.org/10.1007/s11207-024-02262-6"](https://doi.org/10.1007/s11207-024-02262-6) \h]

8.3 Attribution of global warming

Page 85

MISLEADING

There are numerous candidate processes, including solar ultraviolet changes; energetic particle precipitation; atmospheric-electric-field effect on cloud cover; cloud changes produced by solar-modulated galactic cosmic rays; large relative changes in the magnetic field; and the strength of the solar wind. Such solar indirect effects are not included in climate models, although indirect methods of estimating their impacts suggest they are significant.

[[HYPERLINK "https://www.mps.mpg.de/solar-physics/staff/27560"](https://www.mps.mpg.de/solar-physics/staff/27560) \h],

astrophysicist, Max Planck Institute for Solar System Research

It is exaggerated and incorrect to claim that the impacts of such effects are significant. Many of these effects are described vaguely in the DoE report, making their implications unclear (for example, "large relative changes in the magnetic field") without specifying what that entails. Additionally, the influence of cosmic rays on cloud formation has been shown to be negligible, as demonstrated by the CLOUD experiment at CERN (Pierce (2017)). While some effects on Earth's atmosphere from other processes have been studied (e.g., Mironova et al. (2015) and Sinnhuber & Funke (2020)), their effects are generally considered to be small.

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8.3 Attribution of global warming

Page 85

MISLEADING

However, the recommended forcing dataset for the CMIP6 climate model simulations used in AR6 for attribution studies averages two data sets with low solar variability (Matthes, (2017)).

[[HYPERLINK "http://www.personal.reading.ac.uk/~ym901336/index.html"](http://www.personal.reading.ac.uk/~ym901336/index.html) \h], professor of space environment physics and president of the Royal Astronomical Society, University of Reading

The statement is true, but very misleading as it is made to sound that larger TSI-drift papers were ignored. There is only one very high TSI drift reconstruction and it is very much an outlier – other reconstructions show much smaller drift. There is also analysis of recent solar cycles that shows that the low TSI change reconstructions are correct.

Quote given to Carbon Brief

Supporting evidence

[[HYPERLINK "https://royalsocietypublishing.org/doi/10.1098/rspa.2020.0077"](https://royalsocietypublishing.org/doi/10.1098/rspa.2020.0077) \h]

8.3 Attribution of global warming

Page 85

MISLEADING

However, the impact of solar variations on the climate is uncertain and subject to substantial debate (Lockwood (2012); Connolly et al. (2021)) – something that is not evident in the IPCC assessment reports.

[[HYPERLINK "http://www.personal.reading.ac.uk/~ym901336/index.html"](http://www.personal.reading.ac.uk/~ym901336/index.html) \h], professor of space environment physics and president of the Royal Astronomical Society, University of Reading

This is highly misleading as it conflates regional and global climate. The cited references were discussing regional climates where there is more uncertainty and some (limited) solar influence through downward propagation of stratospheric responses, especially in winter. The global climate is not open to such uncertainty. The cooling (as opposed to warming) of the global stratosphere shows conclusively that the effect of solar change on the global climate is minimal compared to effects of changing solar irradiance.

Quote given to Carbon Brief

Supporting evidence

[[HYPERLINK "https://www.pnas.org/doi/10.1073/pnas.1305332110"](https://www.pnas.org/doi/10.1073/pnas.1305332110) \h]

8.3 Attribution of global warming

Page 85

MISLEADING

However, the recommended forcing dataset for the CMIP6 climate model

simulations used in AR6 for attribution studies averages two data sets with low

solar variability (Matthes (2017)).

[[HYPERLINK "https://www.geomar.de/en/kmatthes" \h](https://www.geomar.de/en/kmatthes)], director, GEOMAR Helmholtz Centre for Ocean Research Kiel

It is correct that the long-term trend in TSI is rather on the low variability side, but it is completely ignored that other more extreme trends (high variability trends) are completely unrealistic. We only provide an extreme Maunder Minimum case as a sensitivity experiment.

Quote given to Carbon Brief

Supporting evidence

[[HYPERLINK "https://gmd.copernicus.org/articles/10/2247/2017/" \h](https://gmd.copernicus.org/articles/10/2247/2017/)]

8.3 Attribution of global warming

Page 85

MISLEADING

While AR6 shows a substantially greater solar impact than does AR5, the overall impact of solar forcing on the climate was still assessed to be small compared to anthropogenic forcing. However, the impact of solar variations on the climate is uncertain and subject to substantial debate (Lockwood (2012); Connolly et al. (2021) – something that is not evident in the IPCC assessment reports. The variations of TSI over time remains a challenging problem. Since 1978, there have been direct measurements of TSI from satellites. However, the data exhibits non-negligible inconsistencies, and interpreting any multi-decadal trends in TSI requires comparisons of observations from overlapping satellites. There are several rival composite TSI datasets that disagree as to

whether TSI increased or decreased during the period 1986-96 (the ACRIM gap; see Chapter 4). Further, the satellite record of TSI is used to calibrate proxy models that infer past solar variations from sunspots and cosmogenic isotope measurements (Velasco Herrera et al. (2015)). There is substantial evidence for high solar activity in the second half of the 20th century (starting in 1959) and extending into the 1990s, before a decline in the early 21st century; this period is often termed the "Modern Maximum". (Chatzistergos et al. (2023); Solanki et al. (2004); Usoskin et al. (2007)). However, some scientists have concluded that it is not possible to be confident of any multi-decadal trend in TSI (Schmutz (2021)). This uncertainty causes some reconstructions of TSI from 1750 to have low variability (implying a very low impact of solar variations on global mean surface temperature) whereas datasets with high TSI variability can explain more than 70% of the temperature variability since pre-industrial times (Scafetta (2013); Stefani (2021)). The choice of TSI satellite record used in an analysis can therefore substantially influence how much climate change is attributed to human versus natural forcings.

[[HYPERLINK "https://www.geomar.de/en/kmatthes"](https://www.geomar.de/en/kmatthes) \h], director, GEOMAR Helmholtz Centre for Ocean Research Kiel

In Matthes et al. (2017), we conclude the following two points (just as an example of mis-citation):

- 1) A new and lower TSI value is recommended: the contemporary solar-cycle average is now $1,361.0 \pm 0.5 \text{ W/m}^2$ (Prša et al. (2016)).
- 2) Over the last three solar cycles in the satellite era, there is a slight negative TSI trend in the CMIP6 dataset. A recent reconstruction of the TSI, with a proper estimation of its uncertainties, suggests that this downward trend between the solar minima of 1986 and 2009 is not statistically significant

(Dudok de Wit et al. (2017)). The TSI trend leads to an estimated radiative forcing on a global scale of -0.04 W/m^2 , which is small in comparison with other forcings over this period.

Therefore the sentence in the DoE report stating that the “choice of TSI satellite record used in an analysis can therefore substantially influence how much climate change is attributed to human versus natural forcings” is completely wrong and ignores the thorough science. The radiative forcing to this natural forcing – even if we would have chosen a different TSI dataset – is small (-0.04 W/m^2).

The next completely wrong statement is that “such solar indirect effects are not included in climate models”. In Matthes et al. (2017), we provide a comprehensive dataset including TSI and solar spectral irradiance data as well as solar particle forcing for the first time. We also provide an ozone dataset with the indirect effect included. Many of the CMIP6 models do include spectral solar irradiance as well as ozone changes, so the indirect effect and some even the particle effects. I am really shocked about these wrong statements. The IPCC is based on sound scientific evidence and this DoE report is kicking the evidence with feet. Misinterpreting and mis-citing or not at all citing important work (such as the important parts of Matthes et al. (2017) where we provide sound scientific evidence and discuss the details) – this is just horrible. By taking out only parts of the story and “simplifying it”, it is becoming simply wrong. This is not sound science.”

Quote given to Carbon Brief

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8.4 Declining planetary albedo and recent record warmth

Page 90

MISLEADING

Arguably the most striking change in the Earth's climate system during the 21st century is a significant reduction in planetary albedo since 2015, which has coincided with at least two years of record global warmth. Figure 8.2 shows the planetary albedo variations since 2000, when there are good satellite observations. The 0.5% reduction in planetary albedo since 2015 corresponds to an increase of 1.7 W/m² in absorbed solar radiation averaged over the planet (Hansen and Karecha (2025)). For comparison, Forster et al. (2024) estimate the current forcing from the increase in atmospheric CO₂ compared to pre-industrial times to be 2.33 W/m².

[[HYPERLINK "https://environment.leeds.ac.uk/see/staff/1267/professor-piers-forster"](https://environment.leeds.ac.uk/see/staff/1267/professor-piers-forster) \h], professor of climate physics, University of Leeds

[The citation] is correct, but it presents a somewhat incomplete comparison with the absorbed solar radiation. One's a very long-term forcing, the other is a mix of forcing and response over a shorter period, so the two numbers are not very comparable. All Earth's energy budget terms need to be considered and understood together. And when all components are analysed together, the cause of the Earth's energy balance can be traced to GHG warming and the Earth's system response with a good degree of certainty, as explained by the

Hodnebrog et al. (2024) paper already referenced. This text as written is ok, but for me it plays up the uncertainties somewhat.

Quote given to Carbon Brief

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8.4 Declining planetary albedo and recent record warmth

Page 90

FALSE

Arctic sea ice extent has declined by about 5% since 1980

Anonymous

September sea ice (1979-88 average compared to 2015-24 average) is 34% lower today according to OSISAF [Ocean and Sea Ice Satellite Application Facility] observations and 35% lower according to NSIDC [National Snow and Ice Data Center]. For the annual mean sea ice extent, the percentage reduction is 14% according to NSIDC and OSISAF. The number is higher in summer because that is when there is the most sea ice loss and the seasonal minimum, so the least amount to start with. In addition, the evidence given to support this statement links to a figure showing sea ice decline in Antarctica in July.

Quote given to Carbon Brief

Supporting evidence

[[HYPERLINK "https://osi-saf.eumetsat.int/products/osi-420"](https://osi-saf.eumetsat.int/products/osi-420) \h]

[[HYPERLINK "https://nsidc.org/sea-ice-today/sea-ice-tools" \h](https://nsidc.org/sea-ice-today/sea-ice-tools)]

8.4 Declining planetary albedo and recent record warmth

Page 90

MISLEADING

...although following 2007 there has been a pause in the Arctic sea ice decline (England et al. (2025)).

Anonymous

What they say is true and is correctly cited, but lacking context. In the latest version published recently [the DoE report cites a preprint version], the authors note that they “find that the existence of this slowdown also predisposes the sea ice cover for a more rapid decline in the near future”. They add that they “would like to underscore that pause or slowdown are used interchangeably to refer to an extended period with little or no decline in sea ice cover, due to the observed realisation of multi-decadal climate variability on top of the response to anthropogenic forcing, temporarily interrupting the ongoing long-term reduction in Arctic sea ice. This does not imply a cessation of human-induced climate change and, instead, it is likely that sea ice would have increased over this period without human influence.”

Quote given to Carbon Brief

Supporting evidence

[[HYPERLINK "https://agupubs.onlinelibrary.wiley.com/doi/10.1029/2025GL116175?af=R" \h](https://agupubs.onlinelibrary.wiley.com/doi/10.1029/2025GL116175?af=R)]

8.4 Declining planetary albedo and recent record warmth

Page 90

MISLEADING

Regarding Antarctic sea ice, the IPCC AR6 concludes that "There has been no significant trend in Antarctic sea ice area from 1979 to 2020 due to regionally opposing trends and large internal variability." (Summary for Policymakers, A.1.5)

Anonymous

While this is true, it is misleading because they neglect to mention that Antarctic sea ice cover has had a dramatic decline since 2015 and the last few years have seen record lows. Studies have found that these record lows were unlikely to have happened before over the last century. Missing out the last few years of Antarctic sea ice trajectory is a huge omission.

Quote given to Carbon Brief

Supporting evidence

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8.4 Declining planetary albedo and recent record warmth

Pages 101-103

MISLEADING

Section 8.4

[[HYPERLINK "https://www.awi.de/en/about-us/service/expert-database/translate-to-english-helge-goessling.html"](https://www.awi.de/en/about-us/service/expert-database/translate-to-english-helge-goessling.html) \h], climate physicist and group leader, Alfred Wegener Institute

The authors manage to avoid statements that are individually clearly wrong. It is even somewhat difficult to nail down individual sentences that would be clearly misleading taken alone, because that depends on the context they are placed in. However, considering the section as a whole, I think it's pretty clear that they are over-emphasising uncertainties and the possible relative role of natural variability while down-playing the two other main possible mechanisms behind the albedo decline of the last two and a half decades, namely a possibly emerging positive low-cloud feedback and (largely indirect) aerosol effects.

Quote given to Carbon Brief

8.4 Declining planetary albedo and recent record warmth

Pages 101-103

MISLEADING

Section 8.4

[[HYPERLINK "https://research.reading.ac.uk/meteorology/people/richard-allan/"](https://research.reading.ac.uk/meteorology/people/richard-allan/) \h], professor of climate science, University of Reading

I did not spot major errors in the section on planetary albedo, although I consider that there is an emphasis on abruptness of temperature and albedo changes, which artificially emphasise the role of natural variability. which could be misleading.

Quote given to Carbon Brief

8.4 Declining planetary albedo and recent record warmth

Page 90

MISLEADING

A sharp recent increase in global average temperatures has raised the question of short-term drivers of climate. One such candidate is the fraction of absorbed solar radiation which has also increased abruptly in recent years. The question is whether the change is an internal feedback to warming caused by greenhouse gases, or whether something else increased the fraction of absorbed radiation which then caused the recent warming.

[[HYPERLINK "https://research.reading.ac.uk/meteorology/people/richard-allan/"](https://research.reading.ac.uk/meteorology/people/richard-allan/) \h], professor of climate science, University of Reading

A "sharp recent increase in global temperature" and "the fraction of absorbed solar radiation which has also increased abruptly" are potentially misleading since while both global surface temperature and absorbed solar radiation have varied with ENSO, they have also increased steadily over time (Loeb et al. (2024) and Forster et al. (2024)). This wording could artificially emphasise the role of natural variability.

Quote given to Carbon Brief

Supporting evidence

[[HYPERLINK "https://doi.org/10.1007/s10712-024-09838-8"](https://doi.org/10.1007/s10712-024-09838-8) \h]

8.4 Declining planetary albedo and recent record warmth

Page 90

MISLEADING

Arguably the most striking change in the Earth's climate system during the 21st century is a significant reduction in planetary albedo since 2015, which has coincided with at least two years of record global warmth.

[[HYPERLINK "https://research.reading.ac.uk/meteorology/people/richard-allan/"](https://research.reading.ac.uk/meteorology/people/richard-allan/) \h], professor of climate science, University of Reading

Planetary albedo has decreased before 2015 as well as after, though the decreases are larger around 2012-14 (increases in absorbed sunlight in Loeb et al. (2024), Fig. 5a). Decreases in reflected sunlight up to 2016 are captured by some climate models applying observed SST (Loeb et al. (2020)), suggesting that they are a response to global warming and its spatial pattern (Andrews et al. (2022)), though it is not clear how much of the pattern of global warming is explained by radiative forcing and how much internal variability.

Quote given to Carbon Brief

Supporting evidence

[[HYPERLINK "http://doi.org/10.1029/2019GL086705"](http://doi.org/10.1029/2019GL086705) \h]

8.4 Declining planetary albedo and recent record warmth

Page 91

MISLEADING

The issue then becomes the cause of the change in cloud cover. Two explanations have been posited for the declining cloud cover over the past decade: • Natural climate variability • Changes in low cloud cover associated with warming sea surface temperatures, implying an emerging positive feedback to climate change (Hansen and Karecha (2025))

[[HYPERLINK "https://www.awi.de/en/about-us/service/expert-database/translate-to-english-helge-goessling.html"](https://www.awi.de/en/about-us/service/expert-database/translate-to-english-helge-goessling.html) \h], climate physicist and group leader, Alfred Wegener Institute

Maybe even more importantly, they omit the third major possible mechanism behind the cloud-cover decline altogether, namely indirect aerosol effects. They do mention aerosols and recent aerosol emission reductions, but only prior to the part where they state that the main reason for the albedo-decline seems to be related to clouds (which, by itself, is true). They write: “The issue then becomes the cause of the change in cloud cover. Two explanations have been posited for the declining cloud cover over the past decade.” However, the indirect aerosol effect, although uncertain, is likely even stronger than the direct aerosol effect, and it is an important candidate for explaining a part of the recent cloud-cover decline. By omitting this completely, they further emphasise the relative importance of natural variability to a degree that can not be considered appropriate.

Quote given to Carbon Brief

8.4 Declining planetary albedo and recent record warmth

Page 91

MISLEADING

Surface albedo changes have thus contributed only weakly to the recent planetary albedo decline, particularly when averaged annually and globally.

[[HYPERLINK "https://research.reading.ac.uk/meteorology/people/richard-allan/"](https://research.reading.ac.uk/meteorology/people/richard-allan/) \h], professor of climate science, University of Reading

Surface albedo has also contributed significantly to the decline in global albedo according to Loeb et al. (2024), which accounts for cloud masking: "...part of the positive –SW trend is impacted by decreases in surface albedo from declining sea-ice coverage during the CERES period". However, this applies to the period since 2000, rather than during 2015, which line 10 [of the DoE report] is referring to, while the decrease in planetary albedo has been observed over the full CERES period rather than just in 2015 (Loeb et al. (2024)).

Quote given to Carbon Brief

Supporting evidence

[[HYPERLINK "https://doi.org/10.1007/s10712-024-09838-8" \h](https://doi.org/10.1007/s10712-024-09838-8)]

8.4 Declining planetary albedo and recent record warmth

Page 91

MISLEADING

Loeb et al. found that decreases in low- and mid-level clouds since 2015 are the primary reason for decreasing planetary albedo in the northern hemisphere, whereas in the southern hemisphere the decrease in planetary albedo is primarily due to decreases in mid-level clouds across all latitude zones.

[[HYPERLINK "https://research.reading.ac.uk/meteorology/people/richard-allan/" \h](https://research.reading.ac.uk/meteorology/people/richard-allan/)], professor of climate science, University of Reading

The stated "decreases in low- and mid-level clouds" is misleading since Loeb et al. (2024) find decreases in cloud cover and also reflectance have contributed to the increase in absorbed sunlight along with surface albedo decreases (that can be related to ice melt elsewhere in the article): "[W]e find that decreases in low

and middle cloud fraction and reflection and reduced reflection from cloud-free areas in mid-high latitudes are the primary reasons for increasing ASR [absorbed solar radiation] trends in the [northern hemisphere]...In the [southern hemisphere] the increase in ASR is primarily from decreases in middle cloud reflection and a weaker reduction in low-cloud reflection." The increase in reflection counters arguments presented that the decreases in aerosol are not influencing the decreases in albedo as their effect on making clouds brighter diminishes (e.g. Hodnebrog et al. (2024)), while the additional steady rise in ASR during the CERES period is also consistent with cloud and ice-albedo feedbacks to warming (Forster et al. (2021); Tselioudis et al. (2025); and Norris et al. (2016)) as well as declining global aerosol emissions (Quaas et al. (2022)).

Quote given to Carbon Brief

Supporting evidence

[HYPERLINK "<https://doi.org/10.1007/s10712-024-09838-8>" \h]

8.4 Declining planetary albedo and recent record warmth

Page 91

MISLEADING

The issue then becomes the cause of the change in cloud cover. Two explanations have been posited for the declining cloud cover over the past decade: • Natural climate variability • Changes in low cloud cover associated with warming sea surface temperatures, implying an emerging positive feedback to climate change (Hansen and Karecha (2025))

[[HYPERLINK "https://research.reading.ac.uk/meteorology/people/richard-allan/" \h](https://research.reading.ac.uk/meteorology/people/richard-allan/)], professor of climate science, University of Reading

Two explanations for decreased global albedo are presented, but the decline in ocean aerosols is ignored and this has been identified as an important driver of decreased global albedo (e.g. Hodnebroeg et al. (2024)). Combined with overemphasis of the abruptness of changes, this is potentially misleading since it overemphasises the role of natural variability.

Quote given to Carbon Brief

Supporting evidence

[[HYPERLINK "https://doi.org/10.1038/s43247-024-01324-8" \h](https://doi.org/10.1038/s43247-024-01324-8)]

8.4 Declining planetary albedo and recent record warmth

Page 92

MISLEADING

It is not easy to justify a new positive low cloud feedback that began emerging in 2015 since there is no obvious feedback trigger starting at that time.

[[HYPERLINK "https://www.awi.de/en/about-us/service/expert-database/translate-to-english-helge-goessling.html" \h](https://www.awi.de/en/about-us/service/expert-database/translate-to-english-helge-goessling.html)], climate physicist and group leader, Alfred Wegener Institute

I think this is an example of a "straw man argument", because it's clear that there would not be a trigger starting exactly at some point. Rather, a forced signal (like a positive cloud feedback) would be superimposed by natural variations, and at some point, depending on signal-to-noise ratio (and possible other forcings) and how the associated forcing grows, the forced signal can

emerge from the noise. An associated timeseries may just look like something kicked in at a specific time.

Quote given to Carbon Brief

8.4 Declining planetary albedo and recent record warmth

Page 92

MISLEADING

However, there are numerous natural climate signals during this period that are associated with atmospheric circulation changes that can influence the distribution of clouds:

- *The 2014–16 was one of the strongest El Niño events on record.*
- *A cold anomaly beginning in 2015 in the subpolar gyre of the North Atlantic reflects a shift in the ocean circulation pattern associated with decadal variability in the Atlantic (Frajka-Williams et al. (2017); Arthun et al. (2021)).*
- *The Pacific Decadal Oscillation positive index peaked in 2016, then declined and has been in negative territory since late 2019.*
- *Eruption of the submarine Hunga-Tonga volcano in 2022.*

[[HYPERLINK "https://www.awi.de/en/about-us/service/expert-database/translate-to-english-helge-goessling.html"](https://www.awi.de/en/about-us/service/expert-database/translate-to-english-helge-goessling.html) \h], climate physicist and group leader, Alfred Wegener Institute

When it comes to natural variability, they are listing quite comprehensively which aspects of natural variations could – in principle – have had an impact on planetary albedo, in part also overemphasising some aspects that rather clearly can not have had a major impact on the longer-term decline, such as ENSO (as we also investigated in our paper). Also their interpretation of results for the

Hunga Tonga eruption and its possible contribution to the recent warming

surge seems not to be a balanced representation of the recent literature about it, which does not suggest a major contribution. Also, they provide their list of natural variability aspects right after the down-playing statement about the possible low-cloud feedback mentioned above, saying: "However, there are numerous natural climate signals during this period that are associated with atmospheric circulation changes that can influence the distribution of clouds." This shows quite clearly that they want to emphasise the natural variability over the possible low-cloud feedback.

Quote given to Carbon Brief

8.4 Declining planetary albedo and recent record warmth

Page 92

MISLEADING

It is not easy to justify a new positive low cloud feedback that began emerging in 2015 since there is no obvious feedback trigger starting at that time.

[[HYPERLINK "https://research.reading.ac.uk/meteorology/people/richard-allan/"](https://research.reading.ac.uk/meteorology/people/richard-allan/) \h], professor of climate science, University of Reading

A change in the SST pattern has been linked to a decline in low-altitude cloud over some stratocumulus regions (Andrews et al. (2022) and Loeb et al. (2020)) and it is misleading to paint these changes as requiring new feedbacks.

Quote given to Carbon Brief

Supporting evidence

[[HYPERLINK "http://doi.org/10.1029/2019GL086705"](http://doi.org/10.1029/2019GL086705) \h]

8.4 Declining planetary albedo and recent record warmth

Page 92

MISLEADING

A change of 1-2% in global cloud cover has a greater radiative impact on the climate than the direct radiative effect of doubling CO₂.

[[HYPERLINK "https://research.reading.ac.uk/meteorology/people/richard-allan/"](https://research.reading.ac.uk/meteorology/people/richard-allan/) \h], professor of climate science, University of Reading

Short-term interannual fluctuations are unfairly compared with long-term radiative forcing. Also, a decrease in global albedo is an expected consequence of global warming as feedbacks cause ice to melt and some clouds to diminish (e.g. Forster et al. (2021)). This signal in shortwave radiation is seen to a greater extent than in the longwave since decreases in outgoing longwave due to rising greenhouse gases being offset by the increases in outgoing longwave from the resulting higher temperatures that are influenced by the greenhouse gases, but also declining aerosol and feedbacks that amplify the warming through ice melt and cloud responses to warming (e.g. Raghuraman et al. (2024)).

Quote given to Carbon Brief

Supporting evidence

[[HYPERLINK "https://www.ipcc.ch/report/ar6/wg1/chapter/chapter-7/"](https://www.ipcc.ch/report/ar6/wg1/chapter/chapter-7/) \h]

8.6 Extreme event attribution (EEA)

Page 96

FALSE

The existence of an outlier at the end of a data series poses the problem that estimates of the event probabilities will be biased whether the outlier is included or excluded (Barlow et al. (2020)). Methods to eliminate the bias have not yet been established.

[[HYPERLINK "https://iac.ethz.ch/people-iac/person-detail.html?persid=335613%20https%3A//people.epfl.ch/anthony.davison%3Fla%3Den"](https://iac.ethz.ch/people-iac/person-detail.html?persid=335613%20https%3A//people.epfl.ch/anthony.davison%3Fla%3Den) \h], research scientist, professor of mathematics, ETH Zurich, École Polytechnique Fédérale de Lausanne

The text suggests that the presence of the trigger event at the end can't be dealt with, whereas the argument in Barlow and in our paper is that it can be dealt with (if the selection event is known) with appropriate statistical methods specifically detailed in both papers.

Quote given to Carbon Brief

Supporting evidence

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8.6 Extreme event attribution (EEA)

Page 96

MISLEADING

Methods to eliminate the bias have not yet been established, leading some experts (e.g. Miralles and Davison (2023)) to argue that in settings in which a data series contains a single extreme event at the end, estimation of a return period for the extreme event will be so biased and uncertain that it should be avoided altogether.

[[HYPERLINK "https://iac.ethz.ch/people-iac/person-detail.html?persid=335613%20https%3A//people.epfl.ch/anthony.davison%3Flang%3Den"](https://iac.ethz.ch/people-iac/person-detail.html?persid=335613%20https%3A//people.epfl.ch/anthony.davison%3Flang%3Den) \h], research scientist, professor of mathematics, ETH Zurich, École Polytechnique Fédérale de Lausanne

The cited paper does argue that the estimated return period is highly variable and so one should avoid using it, but also states that if it has to be used, one should clearly state its uncertainty. It does not imply that fast weather attribution should not be performed at all.

Quote given to Carbon Brief

Supporting evidence

[[HYPERLINK "https://doi.org/10.1016/j.wace.2023.100584"](https://doi.org/10.1016/j.wace.2023.100584) \h]

8.6 Extreme event attribution (EEA)

Page 97

MISLEADING

Zeder et al. (2023) also concluded that the methods employed by Philip et al. (2022, the WWA analysis) tend to overstate the rarity of extreme heat waves, leading to a biased perception of the effect of climate change on the heatwave event: “The tendency to overestimate the return period of observed extreme heatwave events may fuel the impression that seemingly impossible heatwave extremes are currently clustering at an unprecedented rate.”

[[HYPERLINK](https://usys.ethz.ch/en/people/profile.MTE5NTkw.TG1zdC82MzcsMzIwMTk3)

"<https://usys.ethz.ch/en/people/profile.MTE5NTkw.TG1zdC82MzcsMzIwMTk3>

MjIy.html" \h], lecturer at the department of environmental systems science, ETH

Zurich

The quote taken from the paper Zeder et al. (2023) led by my (former) PhD student, Joel Zeder, is in itself correct, yet taken completely out of context. Our paper shows indeed that when using relatively short observational timeseries, return level estimates may be systematically underestimated and return periods may be overestimated, which affects the calculation of the risk ratio in attribution studies. We further concluded that the risk of extreme heatwaves could be underestimated in both past and present-day climate and recommend following an approach like Miralles and Davison (2023). This paper applied the recommended approach specifically to the 2021 Pacific north-west heatwave. However, both Miralles and Davison (2023) and Zeder et al. (2023) show that while methodological choices affect the exact estimate of the risk ratio, all estimates show a strong role of long-term warming increasing the probability of the event.

Quote given to Carbon Brief

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Part III: Impacts on ecosystems and society

9.1 Econometric analyses

Page 104

FALSE

Bareille and Chakir (2023) assembled a large data base on farm sale prices in France for properties that sold twice between 1996 and 2019. They could

replicate pessimistic results showing negative effects of warming on agricultural land values using conventional econometric modelling.

[[HYPERLINK "https://psae-saclay.fr/en/membres-de-lunite/francois-bareilleinrae-fr/"](https://psae-saclay.fr/en/membres-de-lunite/francois-bareilleinrae-fr/)], researcher in economics, INRAE & University Paris-Saclay

Bareille and Chakir (2023) do reproduce the standard results obtained from “conventional econometric modelling” like the Ricardian approach proposed by Mendelsohn et al. (1994). However, these standard results in no way demonstrate “negative effects of warming on agricultural land values”. Rather, as illustrated in Figure 5 of their study, Bareille and Chakir (2023) closely mimic the outcomes of the Ricardian approach in similar contexts, which points to slightly positive impacts of climate change on farmland values. Such findings are consistent with the broader literature when applied to contexts with moderate climate conditions. Nevertheless, as has been extensively discussed, these results are likely subject to bias arising from omitted variables.

Quote given to Carbon Brief

Supporting evidence

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9.1 Econometric analyses

Page 104

FALSE

But by taking advantage of the repeat sales data, which provides information on site-specific changes in land prices, they found the results reversed and

implied that climate change will be very beneficial for French agriculture.

[[HYPERLINK "https://psae-saclay.fr/en/membres-de-lunite/francois-bareilleinrae-fr/"](https://psae-saclay.fr/en/membres-de-lunite/francois-bareilleinrae-fr/) \h], researcher in economics, INRAE & University Paris-Saclay

Bareille and Chakir (2023) do not identify any negative impacts of climate change on land values; across all methodologies they employ, the evidence consistently points toward positive effects of recent climate trends.

Quote given to Carbon Brief

Supporting evidence

[[HYPERLINK "https://www.sciencedirect.com/science/article/abs/pii/S0095069623000402"](https://www.sciencedirect.com/science/article/abs/pii/S0095069623000402) \h]

9.1 Econometric analyses

Page 104

MISLEADING

But by taking advantage of the repeat sales data, which provides information on site-specific changes in land prices, they found the results reversed and implied that climate change will be very beneficial for French agriculture.

[[HYPERLINK "https://psae-saclay.fr/en/membres-de-lunite/francois-bareilleinrae-fr/"](https://psae-saclay.fr/en/membres-de-lunite/francois-bareilleinrae-fr/) \h], researcher in economics, INRAE & University Paris-Saclay

These results are derived from recent climate trends over the period 1990-2020 in the context of French agriculture. While such moderate warming may generate short-term benefits for agriculture, more substantial – and as yet unobserved – warming is likely to result in losses. It is well established that

higher temperatures induced by climate change can produce non-linear effects,

with moderate warming potentially yielding gains, but more pronounced warming leading to detrimental impacts.

Quote given to Carbon Brief

Supporting evidence

[[HYPERLINK "https://www.nature.com/articles/nature15725"](https://www.nature.com/articles/nature15725) \h]

9.1 Econometric analyses

Page 104

MISLEADING

But by taking advantage of the repeat sales data, which provides information on site-specific changes in land prices, they found the results reversed and implied that climate change will be very beneficial for French agriculture.

[[HYPERLINK "https://psae-saclay.fr/en/membres-de-lunite/francois-bareilleinrae-fr/"](https://psae-saclay.fr/en/membres-de-lunite/francois-bareilleinrae-fr/) \h], researcher in economics, INRAE & University Paris-Saclay

While such a result may arise in contexts like France (where northern regions remain, for the time being, too cold to cultivate high-value crops), these findings are highly context-specific and cannot be generalised to other settings. This is particularly true for a large and heterogeneous country like the US, where both climatic and agricultural conditions differ substantially from those in France. Bareille and Chakir (2023) provide indirect evidence that the positive impacts of recent climate change on French agriculture identified with their approach are likely driven by vineyard expansion, a phenomenon highly specific to France and not transferable to the US context.

Quote given to Carbon Brief

Supporting evidence

[[HYPERLINK "https://www.journals.uchicago.edu/doi/full/10.1093/reep/rex017"](https://www.journals.uchicago.edu/doi/full/10.1093/reep/rex017) \h]

9.1 Econometric analyses

Page 104

MISLEADING

The authors concluded that, taking adaptation into account, a warming climate would yield positive benefits for French agriculture that were between two and 20 times larger than had previously been estimated. On average, with full adaptation, they concluded that climate changes under the medium RCP4.5 scenario could double the value of French farmland by 2100.

[[HYPERLINK "https://psae-saclay.fr/en/membres-de-lunite/francois-bareilleinrae-fr/"](https://psae-saclay.fr/en/membres-de-lunite/francois-bareilleinrae-fr/) \h], researcher in economics, INRAE & University Paris-Saclay

These results are obtained using a novel method, the so-called repeat-Ricardian approach. In contrast to other studies cited in the report – such as Mendelsohn et al. (1994), Deschênes and Greenstone (2007), Schlenker and Roberts (2009) and Burke and Emerick (2016) – this approach has not yet been replicated in other contexts. Its findings should therefore be interpreted with caution. By comparison, dozens of replications and extensions of Deschênes and Greenstone (2007), Schlenker and Roberts (2009) and Burke and Emerick (2016) consistently document negative impacts of climate change on crop productivity in the US, but also worldwide.

Quote given to Carbon Brief

Supporting evidence

[[HYPERLINK "https://www.nature.com/articles/s41586-025-09085-w"](https://www.nature.com/articles/s41586-025-09085-w) \h]

9.1 Econometric analyses

Page 105

MISLEADING

A major deficiency of all these studies, however, is that they omit the role of CO2 fertilisation. Climate change as it relates to this report is caused by GHG emissions, chiefly CO2. The econometric analyses referenced above focus only on temperature and precipitation changes and do not take account of the beneficial growth effect of the additional CO2 that drives them.

[[HYPERLINK "https://psae-saclay.fr/en/membres-de-lunite/francois-bareilleinrae-fr/"](https://psae-saclay.fr/en/membres-de-lunite/francois-bareilleinrae-fr/) \h], researcher in economics, INRAE & University Paris-Saclay

All of these studies implicitly account for the effects of CO2 fertilisation on agriculture insofar as local CO2 concentrations are correlated with changes in temperature and precipitation. Moreover, Hultgren et al. (2025) show that the positive effects of CO2 fertilisation only partially offset the negative impacts of anthropogenic climate change on crop yields arising from changes in temperature and precipitation.

Quote given to Carbon Brief

Supporting evidence

[[HYPERLINK "https://www.nature.com/articles/s41586-025-09085-w"](https://www.nature.com/articles/s41586-025-09085-w) \h]

9.2 Field and laboratory studies of CO2 enrichment

MISLEADING

One of the ways the effect of CO₂ on crop growth has been studied is through “free air enrichment experiments” or FACE plots, in which small sources of CO₂ are placed in fields surrounding plants and the growth response to elevated CO₂ under varying weather conditions are recorded. Ainsworth et al. (2020) summarises results from about 250 such studies. They found that elevation of CO₂ by 200ppm caused an average 18% increase in crop yield in C₃ plants. C₄ plants exhibited benefits mainly under drought conditions.

[[HYPERLINK "https://lab.igb.illinois.edu/long/"](https://lab.igb.illinois.edu/long/) \h], Ikenberry Endowed University Chair, University of Illinois

While this report is correct in saying that, in isolation, our research has shown that an increase in CO₂ does (on average for C₃ crops) results in increased yields and decreased quality, and that it can increase water use efficiency. But when account is taken of the accompanying changes in tropospheric ozone, temperature, atmospheric water vapor pressure deficit and extreme drought, heat and flooding events then the overall effect of GHG driven climate and atmospheric change is strongly negative.

Quote given to Carbon Brief

9.3 Crop modeling meta-analyses

Page 107

MISLEADING

McKittrick (2025) re-examined the Moore et al. database and found that, while it claimed to cover 1,722 studies, only half the entries (N=862) had complete

records, so that the sample available for regression analysis was much smaller than both studies indicated. McKittrick noted that the records most commonly missing were the changes in ambient CO2 and found that in many cases these could be recovered from the underlying studies or the original climate scenario tables, thereby increasing the usable sample size by 40%. The crop yield projections incorporating the newly available data changed considerably. As shown in Figure 9.2, whereas the partial data set implied warming would decrease yield (blue lines), the complete data set implied constant or increase global yields, even out to 5C warming (green lines).

[[HYPERLINK "https://www.iri-thesys.org/people-pages/delphine-deryng-dr/"](https://www.iri-thesys.org/people-pages/delphine-deryng-dr/) \h], lead author, IPCC AR6 WG2

Regression analysis of historical climate impacts on crop yield do not capture the impact of non-linear processes, such as effects of extreme heat stress occurring at crop anthesis. Hence the conclusion based on a single approach is misleading (Moore et al. (2017) and McKittrick (2025)). The IPCC assessed a range of peer-reviewed publications based on regression analysis and process-based models, also including the CO2 fertilisation effects (for example, see AR6 WG2, chapter 14, p1,956, for synthesis on US agriculture).

Quote given to Carbon Brief

Supporting evidence

[[HYPERLINK "https://www.ipcc.ch/report/ar6/wg2/chapter/chapter-14/"](https://www.ipcc.ch/report/ar6/wg2/chapter/chapter-14/) \h]

9.4 CO2 fertilization and nutrient loss

Page 107

MISLEADING

Evidence has shown that CO₂ -induced biomass gains are sometimes accompanied by reductions in the concentrations of protein and other key nutrients such as iron and zinc (Ebi et al. 2021)."

[[HYPERLINK "https://interactive.carbonbrief.org/doe-factcheck/index.html"](https://interactive.carbonbrief.org/doe-factcheck/index.html) \h
], and Dr Becca Neumann, associate professor of civil and environmental
engineering

All plants absorb carbon dioxide from the atmosphere, using photosynthetic pathways to break down that carbon dioxide into carbon and oxygen, and then using the carbon to grow. Eighty-five percent of plants use a photosynthetic pathway that, based on biochemical characteristics, is termed C₃; these C₃ plants include important crops such as wheat, rice, barley, oats, rye, soybean and potatoes. Field experiments with wheat and rice under a doubling of CO₂ from pre-industrial concentrations demonstrate that protein declines by about 10%, B-vitamins by as much as 30% and micronutrients by about 5% (see Ebi et al. (2021) and associated references). Wheat and rice each provide about 20% of calories consumed worldwide, with wide regional variability (Awika (2011) and Shiferaw et al. (2013)). Corn, sorghum and millet use a different photosynthetic pathway (C₄) and are not expected to experience declines in nutrient density with higher CO₂ concentrations. The DoE CWG report conflates these two photosynthetic pathways into "sometimes" without being clear that declines in nutrient density are consistently seen under elevated CO₂ for C₃ crops (Loladze (2002) and (2014); Loladze et al. (2019); Myers et al. (2014); Taub et al. (2008); J. Wang et al. (2019) and (2020); and Zhu et al. (2018)), which are widely consumed in the US.

The DoE CWG report also ignores a key fact raised in Ebi et al. (2021) that

elevated CO2 and elevated temperature can increase toxins such as arsenic and cadmium in crops (Dhar et al. (2020); Farhat et al. (2021) and (2023); Guo et al. (2011); Muehe et al. (2019); J. Wang et al. (2019); Y. Wang et al. (2023); and Yuan et al. (2021)), not just dilute nutrients. Ingestion of toxins in food results in illness, shortened life span, reduced quality of life and death (Gibb et al. (2019)).

Quote given to Carbon Brief

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9.4 CO2 fertilization and nutrient loss

Page 107

MISLEADING

Some experiments have shown that the rising temperatures expected to accompany higher CO2 levels will offset this loss (Köhler et al. (2019)) although the evidence for this is mixed, as is the evidence that nutrient dilution observed to date is entirely attributable to higher CO2 (Ziska (2022)).

[HYPERLINK."https://interactive.carbonbrief.org/doe-factcheck/index.html" \h], and Dr Becca Neumann, associate professor of civil and environmental engineering

Some experiments have shown that rising temperatures expected to accompany higher CO₂ levels can offset nutritional losses (Köhler et al. (2019) and, while the DoE CWG report acknowledges that evidence for this temperature compensation is mixed, it fails to cite studies that found partial or no compensation in nutritional density when elevated CO₂ was crossed with elevated temperature (e.g., Jayawardena et al. (2021); J. Wang et al. (2019); Wei et al. (2021); and Ziska et al. (1997)). On the flip side of crop nutritional quality, increased temperatures are expected to increase toxin levels in crops. Wang et al. (2020) found that while warmer temperatures moderately mitigated the loss of nutrients associated with elevated CO₂, the warmer temperatures simultaneously increased manganese, molybdenum, chromium, nickel, cadmium and lead concentrations in rice and wheat. A study investigating arsenic contamination of rice found that grain arsenic concentrations were more elevated when elevated CO₂ was combined with elevated temperature than when either elevated CO₂ or elevated temperature operated alone (Muehe et al. (2019)).

The second half of the statement above (i.e., "... as is the evidence that nutrient dilution observed to date is entirely attributable to higher CO₂") draws an incorrect conclusion from Ziska (2022). Ziska (2022) presents a figure (Figure 1) that shows newer breeding lines of spring wheat have less percent protein, but that all the breeding lines have experienced declines in percent protein over the 20th century. Thus, Ziska (2022) acknowledges that breeding can change nutritional density but ultimately concludes that "[CO₂] is directly affecting protein concentration separate from breeding history".

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9.4 CO2 fertilization and nutrient loss

Page 107

MISLEADING

If nutrient dilution does occur under rising CO2 levels, there are several adaptive strategies that could be pursued. First, selective breeding to raise micronutrient content is already established (Saltzman et al. (2017)) and has proven to be a cost-effective agronomic strategy (Ebi et al. (2021)).

[[HYPERLINK "https://interactive.carbonbrief.org/doe-factcheck/index.html"](https://interactive.carbonbrief.org/doe-factcheck/index.html) \h], and Dr Becca Neumann, associate professor of civil and environmental engineering

Biofortification via selective breeding has been used successfully to raise the zinc, iron and vitamin A content of crops, per Saltzman et al. (2017). However, this approach is not a “proven” agronomic strategy, cost-effective or otherwise, for addressing simultaneous nutrient dilution by elevated CO2. Ebi et al. (2021) specifically stated: “An additional challenge for biofortification is the tendency of rising CO2 concentrations to diminish the concentrations of multiple nutrients concomitantly (Loladze (2014a) and (2014b)) in contrast to biofortification that targets only one or a few selected nutrients.” Further,

biofortification cannot address the issue of increased toxin levels in crops associated with elevated CO2 and CO2-induced warming.

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References

Page 108

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*Deryng, D., Elliott, J., Folberth, C. et al. (2021) Regional disparities in the beneficial effects of rising CO2 concentrations on crop water productivity. Nature Climate Change 6, 786–790 (2016).
<https://doi.org/10.1038/nclimate2995>*

[[HYPERLINK "https://www.iri-thesys.org/people-pages/delphine-deryng-dr/"](https://www.iri-thesys.org/people-pages/delphine-deryng-dr/) \h], lead author, IPCC AR6 WG2

The date of the citation is incorrect, and I didn't find reference to this paper in the text of the chapter

Quote given to Carbon Brief

9.4 CO2 fertilization and nutrient loss

Page 108

MISLEADING

Optimal strategies will be location-specific because they vary by crop, climate and soil type (Ebi et al. (2021)).

[[HYPERLINK "https://interactive.carbonbrief.org/doe-factcheck/index.html"](https://interactive.carbonbrief.org/doe-factcheck/index.html) \h], and Dr Becca Neumann, associate professor of civil and environmental engineering

Developing new cultivars requires significant investments and generally take years (see CGIAR programmes). Such programmes will not be developed locally, nor will the investment make sense if the developed cultivar only applies to a specific location.

Quote given to Carbon Brief

Supporting evidence

[[HYPERLINK "https://www.cgiar.org/"](https://www.cgiar.org/) \h]

9.4 CO2 fertilization and nutrient loss

Page 108

MISLEADING

Second, fortification of food products with micronutrients is already routine. Folic acid (a B vitamin) is added to flour and many other foods; iodine is added to table salt, most commercial breakfast cereals are fortified with iron and numerous vitamins, etc. Third, dietary supplements in the form of multivitamin tablets are inexpensive, widely-available and routinely consumed.

[HYPERLINK."https://interactive.carbonbrief.org/doe-factcheck/index.html" \h
], and Dr Becca Neumann, associate professor of civil and envrionmental
engineering

Fortification and dietary supplements do not currently alleviate nutrient deficiencies; therefore, it is unlikely that such approaches will alleviate nutrient deficiencies in the future, particularly if they are exacerbated by lower crop nutrient density. For example, 30% of women and girls worldwide (15-49 years) currently have iron-deficiency anemia (World Health Organization, 2025), including nearly 40% of women and girls (12-21 years) in the US (Weyand et al. (2023)). These deficiencies exist despite decades of dietary supplement availability (Macdougall (2017)). The DoE CWG report ignores that high CO2 concentrations affect a wide range of macro and micronutrients beyond iron and zinc, such as lithium (for mental health), magnesium (for muscle and nerve function, blood pressure regulation, bone health and energy production) and others (Loladze (2014)). Dietary supplements do not address these critical contributions to hidden hunger (Wallace et al. (2014)). US government guidelines emphasise that supplements are not an adequate substitute for a nutrient dense diet (US Department of Agriculture and US Department of Health and Human Services (2010)). Further, fortification of food or use of supplements will not address the health risk posed by increased toxin concentrations in grain associated with elevated CO2 and CO2-induced warming.

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9.4 CO2 fertilization and nutrient loss

Page 108

MISLEADING

One concern about reliance on adaptive strategies is whether they are feasible

in low-income countries. Micronutrient deficiency is already a problem in the developing world and dietary supplements have proven to be an effective low-cost response (Ebi et al. (2021)).

[[HYPERLINK "https://interactive.carbonbrief.org/doe-factcheck/index.html"](https://interactive.carbonbrief.org/doe-factcheck/index.html) \h], and Dr Becca Neumann, associate professor of civil and environmental engineering

As noted in the previous comment, micronutrient deficiency is a health problem in developing and developed countries; dietary supplements have not solved the problem. Micronutrient deficiency is expected to increase with elevated CO₂ (Beach et al. (2019); Smith and Myers (2019); Weyant et al. (2018); and Zhu et al. (2018)). As supplements have been unable to fully address the current deficiencies in micronutrients, it is unlikely they will successfully ameliorate a future increased health burden caused by nutrient dilution in crops. In addition, as noted in the previous comment, supplements will not address the health issues posed by increased toxin concentrations in grain expected with elevated CO₂ and CO₂-induced warming.

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9.4 CO₂ fertilization and nutrient loss

Page 108

MISLEADING

It should also be noted the IPCC emission scenarios that generate high levels of warming also involve strong income growth. The SSP scenarios assume that, compared to 2005 levels, global per capita income will double by 2100 in the lowest growth case (SSP3), and in the highest emission case (SSP5) global per-capita income will grow nearly 16-fold. In that scenario even the poorest regions (Africa and the Middle East) end up with a per capita income of about US\$126,000, 70% higher than current US per capita income (about US\$75,000). Consequently the same scenarios in which CO₂ levels increase the most are also those in which global poverty is largely eliminated, in which case all countries would be able to afford dietary supplements as necessary to address micronutrient deficiencies, if they arise and cannot be addressed using on-farm agricultural strategies.

[[HYPERLINK "https://interactive.carbonbrief.org/doe-factcheck/index.html"](https://interactive.carbonbrief.org/doe-factcheck/index.html) \h], and Dr Becca Neumann, associate professor of civil and environmental engineering

The US is one of the wealthier countries in the world, yet many US citizens

suffer from micronutrient deficiencies. Wallace et al. (2014) used data from the

National Health and Nutrition Examination Survey (2007-10) to determine that despite the fact that 51% of Americans consume multivitamin/mineral supplements with greater than nine micronutrients, many fail to meet the estimated average requirement for vitamin A (35%), vitamin C (31%), vitamin D (74%), vitamin E (67%), vitamin K (77%), calcium (39%), magnesium (46%), potassium (100%) and choline (92%). Bird et al. (2017) concluded that “nearly one-third of the US population is at risk of deficiency in at least one vitamin, or has anemia”.

Growth and development of children and lifespan health depends on adequate intake of micronutrients. Decreasing the nutrient density of diets through continued emissions of CO₂ will exacerbate the situation, even with any associated income growth. Ingestion of toxins in food is a global problem that affects the health of millions of people, including those living in wealthy countries (Consumer Reports (2012) and (2014); and Gibb et al. (2019)). A growth in income will not offset the health risk posed by contaminated food. It is expected that this health risk will grow as elevated CO₂ and CO₂-induced warming increase the toxin content of crops (Dhar et al. (2020); Farhat et al. (2021) and (2023); Guo et al. (2011); Muehe et al. (2019); J. Wang et al. (2019); Y. Wang et al. (2023); and Yuan et al. (2021).

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9.4 CO2 fertilization and nutrient loss

Page 108

MISLEADING

In summary, there is abundant evidence going back decades that rising CO2 levels benefit plants, including agricultural crops, and that CO2-induced warming will be a net benefit to US agriculture. To the extent nutrient dilution occurs there are mitigating strategies available that will need to be researched and adapted to local conditions.

[HYPERLINK "https://interactive.carbonbrief.org/doe-factcheck/index.html" \h], and Dr Becca Neumann, associate professor of civil and environmental engineering

There is abundant evidence that under ideal conditions (i.e., adequate nutrients and water and optimal temperatures), crop productivity increases with rising CO2 levels (e.g., Ainsworth & Long (2020)). These increases diminish or disappear when conditions are non-ideal (i.e., nutrients are limited, water and temperatures are sub-optimal). As CO2 concentrations increase, ambient temperatures will continue warming and weather patterns will shift, altering water and nutrient availability. It is not clear that boosts in productivity generated by elevated CO2 will compensate for the damage to plant productivity caused by these other stressors. In many parts of the world, even with adaptation, crop yields are expected to decline (Hultgren et al. (2025)). Further, discussed in the comments above, elevated CO2 is associated with

declining nutrient density in crops. Therefore, it is disingenuous to state that

there is “abundant evidence going back decades that rising CO2 levels benefit plants”. This statement cherry-picks the productivity boost to plants associated with rising CO2 levels while ignoring the negative human health outcomes that will co-occur. The scientific consensus is that CO2-induced warming will be harmful to US agriculture, leading to yield declines (Hu et al. (2024); Hultgren et al. (2025); Lobell et al. (2011); Lobell and Field (2007); and Zhao et al. (2017)). Physiological studies of crops show there is an optimal temperature at which yields maximise. When temperatures are below or above this optimal point, yields decline.

Further, as outlined in the comments to Section 9.4 above, CO2-induced warming is associated with increased toxin levels in crops. It is factually inaccurate to state that “CO2-induced warming will be a net benefit to US agriculture”. There are strategies, such as biofortification and supplementation, that can be employed to help mitigate nutrient dilution in crops, as discussed in Ebi et al. (2020). However, as outlined in the comments above, these approaches currently do not address nutrient deficiencies and therefore it is unrealistic to expect that they will be able to address future nutrient deficiencies exacerbated by rising CO2 levels and crop nutrient density. Further, these strategies will not solve the problem of increased concentrations of toxins in crops associated with increased CO2 and/or CO2-induced warming.

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10.3 Mortality from temperature extremes

Pages 122-124

MISLEADING

Section 10.3.1

[[HYPERLINK "https://www.lshtm.ac.uk/aboutus/people/gasparrini.antonio"](https://www.lshtm.ac.uk/aboutus/people/gasparrini.antonio) \h], biostatistician and epidemiologist, London School of Hygiene & Tropical Medicine

In relation to my area of research, the report cites two articles (Gasparrini (2015) and Zhao (2021)) in support of the statement that cold-related mortality far exceeds heat-related mortality in most of the regions. While true, this says little about the impact of climate change on temperature-related deaths. In fact, the focus should be on the respective (and opposite) change in the heat and cold contributions, not their absolute values. In this respect, there is some evidence that the expected reduction in cold-related mortality will not offset the increase in heat-related mortality, in particular under more extreme climate change scenarios (Gasparrini (2017) and Masselot (2025)). More importantly, the level of adaptation to heat required to offset such a positive net effect should be very high, in the order of 90% reduction (Masselot (2025)).

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11 Climate change, the economy, and the social cost of carbon

Page 116

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An influential study in 2012 suggested that global warming would harm growth in poor countries, but the finding has subsequently been found not to be robust. Studies that take full account of modelling uncertainties either find no evidence of a negative effect on global growth from CO2 emissions or find poor countries as likely to benefit as rich countries.

[[HYPERLINK "https://profiles.sussex.ac.uk/p289812-richard-tol" \h](https://profiles.sussex.ac.uk/p289812-richard-tol)], professor at the department of economics, University of Sussex

“The second sentence is wrong. The authors refer to “studies”, but without references. Tol (2024) finds that the then-available studies jointly point to a negative impact of climate change on global economic growth. My less systematic reading of the literature since has not led me to change my mind. Their conclusion that ‘poor countries’ are ‘likely to benefit’ is again not backed up with references. Tol (2024), the only reference in the paragraph, concludes the opposite.”

Quote from [[HYPERLINK "https://richardtol.substack.com/p/is-climate-change-dangerous" \h](https://richardtol.substack.com/p/is-climate-change-dangerous)]

Supporting evidence

[[HYPERLINK "https://www.sciencedirect.com/science/article/pii/S0301421523005074" \h](https://www.sciencedirect.com/science/article/pii/S0301421523005074)]

11.1 Climate change and economic growth

MISLEADING

Nor have past extreme weather events had a significant effect on US banks' performance (Blickle et al. (2021)); warming has even been shown to be beneficial for the finance and insurance sector (Mohaddes et al. (2023)).

[[HYPERLINK "https://www.jbs.cam.ac.uk/people/kamiar-mohaddes/" \h](https://www.jbs.cam.ac.uk/people/kamiar-mohaddes/)],
deputy director of the Cambridge executive MBA programme,
University of Cambridge

“The way our findings have been presented is misleading...Investigating the long-term macroeconomic effects of climate change across 48 US states, we provide evidence for the damage that climate change causes in the US using various economic indicators at the state level: growth rates of Gross State Product (GSP), GSP per capita (income), labour productivity and employment as well as output growth in 10 economic sectors (e.g. agriculture, manufacturing, services, retail and wholesale trade). Just to be clear, (1) these are not ‘small negative effects’ and (2) we do indeed show that climate change has negative effects on income in the US. We show that while [hashtag#weather](#) shocks have level effects (or temporary growth impacts), climate change – by shifting the long-term average and variability of weather – impacts the US economy’s ability to grow in the long term! We study economic activity in all sectors of the US economy –agriculture, forestry & fisheries; mining, construction, manufacturing, transport, communications and public utilities, wholesale trade, retail trade, financial services & property, services and government –and find that the impact of climate change on sectoral output growth is broad based – each of the 10 sectors considered is affected by at least one of the four climate

variables.”

Quote from [external source](#)

Supporting evidence

[[HYPERLINK "https://academic.oup.com/ooec/article/doi/10.1093/ooec/odac010/6824397?login=false"](https://academic.oup.com/ooec/article/doi/10.1093/ooec/odac010/6824397?login=false) \h]

11.2 Models of the social cost of carbon

Page 121

MISLEADING

Economists use IAMs to compute the SCC. Two of the best-known are the Climate Framework for Uncertainty, Negotiation and Distribution (“FUND”, Tol 1997) and Nordhaus’ DICE. EPA (2023) introduced new ones for its recent work. IAMs embed a “damage function” or set of functions relating ambient temperature to local economic conditions. The assumptions embedded in the damage function will largely determine the resulting SCC. IAMs also assume a long-term discount rate or, as in DICE, compute the optimal internal discount rate as part of the solution.

[[HYPERLINK "https://profiles.sussex.ac.uk/p289812-richard-tol"](https://profiles.sussex.ac.uk/p289812-richard-tol) \h], professor at the department of economics, University of Sussex

“The literature is vast. I counted 446 papers with estimates. There are numerous commentaries; and two handfuls of meta-analyses (e.g. Tol (2023) and Moore et al. (2024)). Instead, the authors wrote their own review, which omits the most influential papers and misses key insights. Cherry-picking may be a better term than review.”

Quote from [[HYPERLINK "https://richardtol.substack.com/p/is-climate-change-dangerous"](https://richardtol.substack.com/p/is-climate-change-dangerous) \h]

Supporting evidence

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11.2 Models of the social cost of carbon

Page 123

FALSE

Tol (2017) estimates that the private benefit of carbon is large relative to the social cost.

[[HYPERLINK "https://profiles.sussex.ac.uk/p289812-richard-tol" \h](https://profiles.sussex.ac.uk/p289812-richard-tol)], professor at the department of economics, University of Sussex

“This paper was never published in a peer-reviewed journal and is therefore not admissible by the rules of the US government. The paper was peer-reviewed and rejected, because my private benefit [of carbon] is an average, whereas the social cost is a marginal. The two cannot be compared (unless you make a ridiculous assumption about linearity). I still hope to fix the paper one day. As it stands, however, the comparison is wrong.”

Quote from [[HYPERLINK "https://richardtol.substack.com/p/is-climate-change-dangerous" \h](https://richardtol.substack.com/p/is-climate-change-dangerous)]

Supporting evidence

[[HYPERLINK "https://ideas.repec.org/p/sus/susewp/0717.html" \h](https://ideas.repec.org/p/sus/susewp/0717.html)]

Glossary

IPCC: The Intergovernmental Panel on Climate Change, the UN body for assessing the science related to climate change. IPCC works in five-to-eight year cycles and comprises three working groups of scientists, each focusing on different aspects of climate science and the response to climate change. Each assessment cycle, scientists appointed by the IPCC produce three reports summarising the latest climate science, as well as “special reports” and a synthesis report, which serve as key inputs to international climate negotiations.

WG1/2/3: The three working groups of the IPCC. Working Group I (WG1) deals with the physical science basis of climate change, Working Group II (WG2) with climate change impacts, adaptation and vulnerability and Working Group III (WG3) with mitigation of climate change.

AR6: The [[HYPERLINK "https://www.carbonbrief.org/carbon-briefs-definitive-guide-to-the-entire-ipcc-sixth-assessment-cycle/" \h](https://www.carbonbrief.org/carbon-briefs-definitive-guide-to-the-entire-ipcc-sixth-assessment-cycle/)] of the IPCC, which was published in 2013-14.

AR5: The [[\] of the IPCC, which was published in 2013-14.](https://www.carbonbrief.org/carbon-briefs-guide-to-the-intergovernmental-panel-on-climate-changes-fifth-assessment-report/)

CMIP5/6: The Coupled Model Intercomparison Project (CMIP) is the international modelling effort that feeds into the IPCC's influential assessments. CMIP5 was developed for AR5, while [[\] was developed for AR6.](https://www.carbonbrief.org/qa-how-do-climate-models-work/)

Methodology

The DoE report references around 350 sources. Of these, around 240 are peer-reviewed research papers. Other sources include books, commentary articles

and letters published in journals, as well as “[[HYPERLINK](https://library.leeds.ac.uk/info/1110/resource-guides/7/grey-literature) "https://library.leeds.ac.uk/info/1110/resource-guides/7/grey-literature" \h]” literature, such as study preprints, blog posts, news articles and government websites.

For this factcheck, Carbon Brief emailed the corresponding authors of all 240 peer-reviewed studies. If the corresponding author did not respond or the email address bounced, Carbon Brief contacted another report author – typically the lead author, if separate to the corresponding author.

In 20 cases, the corresponding author was also an author on the DoE report itself. These authors were not invited to factcheck their own work.

Carbon Brief asked the corresponding authors to read the section of the report that cites their work and to identify if it uses their work to make “misleading” or “false” statements.

False was described as “statements/statistics that are factually incorrect or untrue”.

Misleading was described as “statements/statistics that are presented in a way that distort the meaning, create a false impression or omit/cherry-pick crucial details”.

(Carbon Brief also invited various topic experts to contribute their responses. Respondents were also invited to forward Carbon Brief’s request to other experts.)

Carbon Brief's factcheck also includes comments from scientists who have already reacted to the DoE report in public, via media articles, social media or

blog posts. Links to these sources are included with the relevant responses.

Carbon Brief ensured that any scientists contributing to the factcheck in an anonymous capacity have the appropriate expertise to comment on the sections of the report that they factchecked.

Any pages with “misleading” and “false” statements are shown in orange and red, respectively, in the main graphic. Pages that are not coloured are either accurate, or have not yet been factchecked.

There has been some [[HYPERLINK](#) "https://bsky.app/profile/climateofgavin.bsky.social/post/3lvedvwuj422b" \h] that artificial-intelligence tools might have been used to generate some parts of the report, particularly the citations, due to some “hallucinatory”-type mistakes. For example, a [[HYPERLINK](#) "https://www.carbonbrief.org/qa-social-cost-carbon/" \h] [[HYPERLINK](#) "https://www.carbonbrief.org/qa-social-cost-carbon/" \h] is cited, but the credited author is mistakenly listed as another Carbon Brief journalist.

However, Carbon Brief ran samples of the report’s main text through several AI text checker tools and found there is a “very low probability” they were generated using AI. It was not possible to do similar checks of the report’s citations.

Carbon Brief invites any scientists who notice further errors in the report to email [[HYPERLINK "mailto:info@carbonbrief.org" \h](mailto:info@carbonbrief.org)].

SECTIONS

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Pg	Para	Comment or Suggested Edit	
viii	2	The greening effect can't be due to increase in CO2 alone. The fertilization effect needs Nitrogen and phosphorous. There is observational[1] evidence that nitrogen available to plants is decreasing with increasing CO2 and thus acting to limit fertilization effect. Secondly, the greening of some portions of the planet are likely due to changes in precipitation patterns associated with changing climatic conditions and not entirely attributable to fertilization effect. We will also need to consider that the temperature effect on photosynthesis will also be a limiting mechanism to any continued greening due to fertilization in the future [2]. I recommend acknowledging that the greening is not attributable to CO2 alone and continued greening in the future with increasing CO2 is uncertain. Changed sentence to "Elevated concentrations of CO₂ directly enhance plant growth, globally contributing to "greening" the planet"	[1] Rachel E. Mason et al. Evidence, causes, and consequences of declining nitrogen availability in terrestrial ecosystems. Science 376, eabh3767 (2022). DOI:10.1126/science.abh3767 [2] C.E. Moore, et al. The effect of increasing temperature on crop photosynthesis: from enzymes to ecosystems. Exp. Bot., 72 (8) (2021), pp. 2822-2844
viii	3	I am glad we acknowledge that CO2 causes warming, though I am not sure why we are not considering other energy sector related emissions that also cause warming (CFCs/HFCs, methane, aerosol effects). It is not clear what is meant by "CO2 emissions have tended to overestimate observed trends". This is not correct, the cumulative emissions track the RCP8.5 scenario the closest [3,4]. While there was a decrease in emissions during the Covid-19 period the emissions are now back on track following RCP8.5. This statement should clarify what is meant by the statement in the text. Rewrite sentence in the summary section to read "Climate change simulations require scenarios of distant future emissions. There is evidence that scenarios widely-used in the impacts literature have overstated observed and likely future emission trends." On page 16 text added "Schwalm et al. (2020) defended the use of RCP8.5 on the grounds that cumulative CO2 emissions over 2005-2020 track it more closely than the lower RCP scenarios. They also argue that a modified version of the IEA scenarios closely track RCP8.5 in the coming decades. Hausfather and Peters (2020b) responded that the skill of RCP8.5 over those 15 years is due to offsetting errors in its representation of CO2 from fuel use and land use change, and the apparent agreement with IEA in coming decades is due to Schwalm et al. adding in very high land use emissions. The IEA's own projected CO2 emissions track well below RCP8.5."	[3] C.R. Schwalm, S. Glendon, & P.B. Duffy, RCP8.5 tracks cumulative CO2 emissions, Proc. Natl. Acad. Sci. U.S.A. 117 (33) 19656-19657, https://doi.org/10.1073/pnas.2007117117 (2020). [4] C.R. Schwalm, S. Glendon, & P.B. Duffy, Reply to Hausfather and Peters: RCP8.5 is neither problematic nor misleading, Proc. Natl. Acad. Sci. U.S.A. 117 (45) 27793-27794, https://doi.org/10.1073/pnas.2018008117 (2020).

viii	4	This paragraph seems to be talking about equilibrium climate sensitivity. The most recent model inter-comparison gives a wider range of climate sensitivities in the range of 1.8 to 5.7 and is wider than estimates of climate sensitivities that have been estimated from paleoclimatic and more recent historical datasets, in the range could be in the range of 2.3 to 4.5 K[5]. The higher sensitivity in the most recent model assessments are an area of active investigation by modelers, the feasibility of a higher range needs to be confirmed with additional observational and process scale modeling [6]. The range for climate sensitivities, 1.8-2.7, should be corrected to the most recent findings, 2.3-4.5. We should also recognize that the (a) earth is a complex system of systems (b) we can't do an experiment to find out what is correct or reduced the uncertainty. As we get better at extracting temperature records and CO2 concentrations from paleo data, there will be better reconstructions and possibly narrower range along with improvements in modeling that resolve many physical, biological and chemical processes as we get to higher and cloud resolving spatial resolutions. We discuss Sherwood et al. in Ch 4. Sentence changed: "Data-driven methods yield a lower and narrower range."	[5] Sherwood, S. C., Webb, M. J., Annan, J. D., Armour, K. C., Forster, P. M., Hargreaves, J. C., et al. (2020). An assessment of Earth's climate sensitivity using multiple lines of evidence. <i>Reviews of Geophysics</i>, 58, e2019RG000678. https://doi.org/10.1029/2019RG000678 [6] Zelinka, M. D., Myers, T. A., McCoy, D. T., Po-Chedley, S., Caldwell, P. M., Cepni, P., et al. (2020). Causes of higher climate sensitivity in CMIP6 models. <i>Geophysical Research Letters</i>, 47, e2019GL085782. https://doi.org/10.1029/2019GL085782
viii	5	This is again not true for the majority of the models in the AR6. Figure 7.19 in the IPCC AR6 report shows that majority of the models exhibit a range within the observational range. The models running hot in the most recent decades are the ones with climate sensitivities greater than 5K, which are 3 out of a total of 40 and it should be noted that about the same number of models also are running cold' compared to observed[7] Paragraph has been rewritten: The world's several dozen global climate models offer little guidance on how much the climate responds to elevated CO₂, with the average surface warming under a doubling of the CO₂-concentration ranging from 1.8°C to 5.7°C [Section 4.2]. Data-driven methods yield a lower and narrower range [Section 4.3]. Global climate models generally run "hot" in their description of the climate of the past few decades—too much warming at the surface and too much amplification of warming in the lower- and mid- troposphere [Sections 5.2-5.4]. The combination of overly sensitive models and implausible extreme scenarios for future emissions yields exaggerated projections of future warming.	[7] Hausfather, Z., Drake, H. F., Abbott, T., & Schmidt, G. A. (2020). Evaluating the performance of past climate model projections. <i>Geophysical Research Letters</i>, 47, e2019GL085378. https://doi.org/10.1029/2019GL085378
viii	5,6,7	There is very little dispute that these are challenging issues for climate science. Many of the issues identified here related to compound effects (subsidence and sea-level rise; wildfire and forest management) that requires further scientific investigation. Identifying further research avenues/focus areas will be helpful to firm up some of the challenges faced in using the climate projections as discussed in the paragraph 9. There is no disagreement here.	

viii	9	The focus on uncertainty is relevant and should be emphasized in future research. However, as a reasonable policy pathways, making decisions in the face of these uncertainties is critical. Most of the climate uncertainties that we have confidence at this time can be considered Level 2 and Level 3 uncertainties, approaches such as scenario analysis (and others) are suggested and followed for making hazard and risk estimates for future conditions. For deep uncertainty hazards (for example tornadoes etc.) that we don't have enough data or capability to model, developing methods for assessing the uncertainty and risk should be a focus of future research. There is no disagreement here. See Curry's book Climate Uncertainty and Risk.	
2	3	The reason CO2 was identified as a pollutant is the health consequences of increased temperature, flooding and other climate impacts and not because of any direct affect on health due to exposure to atmospheric CO2[8]. There is no disagreement here.	[8] https://www.cdc.gov/climate-health/php/effects/index.html
3	1/C hapter summary	The summary should note that CO2 fertilization effects are limited by the availability of other critical plant nutrients (Nitrogen, Phosphorous). The fertilization effect is also constrained by higher temperature affecting photosynthesis[9] Added sentence: Other contributing factors included warming and increased nitrogen.	[9] Xinyuan Wei et al 2025 Environ. Res. Lett. 20064013
3	3	The attribution of greening to primarily CO2 fertilization is questionable as per recent research. Specifically, in the Northern high latitudes (where the greening is most prominent), increases in temperatures due to climate change has been shown to provide the best explanation[10]. In the sub-Saharan region reforestation efforts and changing precipitation patterns lead to some of the observed greening (the great green wall) [11]. The attribution to CO2 fertilization should be qualified by noting the other present and emerging constraints. We cite Zhu et al attributing 70% of change to CO₂ CO₂. That implies other factors matter as well.	[10] Liu, J., Wennberg, P.O. An emergent constraint on the thermal sensitivity of photosynthesis and greenness in the high latitude northern forests. Sci Rep 14, 6189 (2024). https://doi.org/10.1038/s41598-024-56362-1 [11] Francesco S.R. Pausata, Marco Gaetani, Gabriele Missouri, Alexis Berg, Danielle Maia de Souza, Rowan F. Sage, Peter B. deMenocal, The Greening of the Sahara: Past Changes and Future Implications, One Earth, Volume 2, Issue 3, 2020, Pages 235-250, ISSN 2590-3322, https://doi.org/10.1016/j.oneear.2020.03.002.
3	5	This summarization ignores the compound effects of temperature, moisture and CO2 fertilization in assessing the impacts of CO2 increase on vegetation and crop yields. Many studies have shown that [12]. Making note of these compensating factors is required for a balanced view on CO2 fertilization effects on plants. This issue is addressed in Chapter 9	[12] Lesk, C., Anderson, W., Rigden, A. et al. Compound heat and moisture extreme impacts on global crop yields under climate change. Nat Rev Earth Environ 3, 872–889 (2022). https://doi.org/10.1038/s43017-022-00368-8

4	1	Chen et al. (2024)[13] conclude that "In the attribution analysis of LAI trend and growth rate trend, there were some differences between multiple linear regression model and partial correlation analysis at high latitudes in the northern hemisphere. Partial correlation analysis showed that LAI trend and growth rate trend in this region were mainly affected by temperature and radiation, while multiple linear regression suggested that CO2 was the dominant driver. The results of the partial correlation analysis seem more reasonable because some previous studies have shown that vegetation change in the high latitudes of the northern Hemisphere is mainly positively affected by climate warming. Multiple linear regression model performed relatively poorly in this region and might not fully identify the contribution of individual drivers. In addition, our model does not include the contribution of land management, which has been highlighted in some previous studies. Of course, the contribution of land management to LAI trend and growth rate trend may be implied in other drivers, such as the positive contribution of CO2 to LAI trend in PP and PN areas". We have added the Chen references. Our existing summary doesn't conflict with this. They conclude CO2 is the dominant driver globally but not the only driver.	[13]Xin Chen, Tiexi Chen, Bin He, Shudi Liu, Shengjie Zhou, Tingting Shi, The global greening continues despite increased drought stress since 2000, <i>Global Ecology and Conservation</i>, Volume 49, 2024, e02791, ISSN 2351-9894,
6	1	This again suffers from not acknowledging the effects of compound and often compensating phenomena that is occurring with the on-going climate change. For example [14] note that much of the Midwest any benefit from CO2 fertilization will be negated by temperature increases. [15] note that "Our results show that long-term physiological acclimation dampens the initial stimulation of plant net carbon assimilation to elevated [CO2], and of plant water use to warming." The topic of agricultural productivity is addressed in Chapter 9 It is not disputed that effects of dT go negative at high enough levels. The 2013 paper by Ruiz-Vera et al doesn't provide much general information beyond the FACE experiment site. The C14 data set I used is a global sample and takes both dT and dC into account.	[14]Ursula M. Ruiz-Vera, Matthew Siebers, Sharon B. Gray, David W. Drag, David M. Rosenthal, Bruce A. Kimball, Donald R. Ort, Carl J. Bernacchi, Global Warming Can Negate the Expected CO2 Stimulation in Photosynthesis and Productivity for Soybean Grown in the Midwestern United States, <i>Plant Physiology</i>, Volume 162, Issue 1, May 2013, Pages 410–423, https://doi.org/10.1104/pp.112.2.11938 [15]Lamba S, Hall M, Rantfors M, et al. Physiological acclimation dampens initial effects of elevated temperature and atmospheric CO2 concentration in mature boreal Norway spruce. <i>Plant Cell Environ.</i> 2018; 41: 300–313. https://doi.org/10.1111/pce.13079
8	1	The fallacy of these arguments in terms of PH changes and evolution is that the changes described in this paragraph occurred over millennia and the evolutionary process had time to adapt; here with climate change we are talking about changes in our lifetime, the speed of change is the issue. This will lead to collapse of some ecosystem and by the time adaptation takes place it will be millions of years and in a different climate - not the one we have now and that enabled the rise of humans. The chapter notes large regional and even diurnal variations in ocean pH. We already address the issue of short timescale variations on p. 8: "On the time scale of thousands of years, boron isotope proxy measurements show that ocean pH was around 7.4 or 7.5 during the last glaciation (up to about 20,000 years ago) increasing to present-day values as the world warmed during deglaciation (Rae <i>et al.</i>, 2018). Thus, ocean biota appear to be resilient to natural long-term changes in ocean pH since marine organisms were exposed to wide ranges in pH."	

5	Fig 2.2	A simple calculation will show us how misleading this figure is. It shows that over 600 Million years CO2 changed by around 6000ppm. That is a rate of change of 0.00001/yr; CO2 changed from 275 to 430 in the past 175 years, that is rate of change of 0.88ppm/yr. A change in the rate of over 10^5 in magnitude - there in lies the problem. We are seeing a rapid increase in CO2 that has never been witnessed and the ecosystem and human society (which is at best 10K years old), may not be able to adapt to this rapid change. This figure has been deleted. We don't know what the rate of changes was on an annual or centennial time scale since the data are too low resolution. We have added the following sentence; "While the modern rate of change in CO2 is likely high compared to prior intervals, the geological evidence is that plants and animals evolved under much higher CO2 levels than at present."	
12	Summary	The misuse of RCP8.5 as business as usual is acknowledged. However, this was never intended to be a no-policy or business as usual scenario but as a high-end baseline scenario. When dealing with interaction of physical systems with socio-economic projections (which tend to be highly uncertain and policy dependent), the development of this high baseline scenarios is intended to explore the uncertainty ranges that represent a high-end scenario[16,17]. As any engineer would acknowledge, this is a prudent approach when dealing with L3 and L4 type deep uncertainties and provide valid envelopes for assessing uncertainties and risks from high impact events/hazards. The rest of the statements here are uncertainties acknowledged by the climate scientists and included in developing projections and discussing the results[4]. Does the IPCC downplay the role of sun in climate change? The IPCC includes sun variability in all its assessments from the beginning and has been acknowledged as a potential but insignificant contributor. The comments do not imply any disagreement with what we have written. Extreme scenarios for models are useful for bracketing outcomes but our criticism (based on the literature) is the widespread use of RCP as a no-policy baseline; the reviewer acknowledges that was never its purpose. The IPCC's assessment insignificance of the sun in climate change is based in part on use of low variability irradiance reconstructions that rule out it having any role. This is addressed in Chapter 8	[16]van Vuuren, D.P., Edmonds, J., Kainuma, M. et al. The representative concentration pathways: an overview. Climatic Change 109, 5 (2011). https://doi.org/10.1007/s10584-011-0148-z [17]Hausfather, Z. (2025). An assessment of current policy scenarios over the 21st century and the reduced plausibility of high-emissions pathways. Dialogues on Climate Change, 2(1), 26-32. https://doi.org/10.1177/29768659241304854 (Original work published 2025)
16	2,3, 4,5	Please see above. The business-as-usual may be a misnomer but this is a 95% case that is typically included in any type of prudent uncertainty analysis, in particular given the difficulty of predicting the evolution of socio-economic and political conditions over the next 100 years. It should be noted the difference between RCP8.5 and RCP4.5 for mid-century conditions that is of particular focus for adaptation studies is not significant and most of the divergence in these two scenarios occurs later in the century. Implausibility is not equivalent to very unlikely (e.g. 95th percentile), but rather includes impossible or implausible assumptions. High impact hazards occur independent of atmospheric CO2 concentrations (Chapter 6).	

19	5	That the dynamic vegetation models need more development is acknowledged and is a defining challenge for Earth System Modeling for the next decade. There is no disagreement here	
22	3	As noted, Parker[18,19,20] has investigated the Urban effects on temperature records. The finding establish that by comparing warm and wind conditions world wide that the impact is negligible. However, as noted by authors, this literature hasn't progressed much over the last decade and much more attention needs to be paid to this question by employing newer models, datasets and analytical techniques available to us at present. The CWG Report addresses this concern. We agree with the reviewer that the literature stalled a decade+ ago.	[18] Parker, D. Large-scale warming is not urban. Nature 432, 290 (2004). https://doi.org/10.1038/432290a [19] Parker, D. E. (2010), Urban heat island effects on estimates of observed climate change. WIREs Clim Change, 1: 123-133. https://doi.org/10.1002/wcc.21. [20] Parker, D. E., 2006: A Demonstration That Large-Scale Warming Is Not Urban. J. Climate, 19, 2882–2895, https://doi.org/10.1175/JCLI3730.1.
28	2	We can all agree that there is a desperate need for developing higher-resolution climate models that can get to cloud resolving scale so that we can represent the cloud feedbacks correctly in the model and avoid uncertainties from parameterization and scale dependency of the parameters. This doesn't make these models useless. The models provide directions for further improvements and necessary changes to reduce the uncertainty bands over the ECS. The climate models are useful for research purposes. The CWG Report demonstrates that they are not fit for the purpose of policy making. There's no guarantee increased resolution will be the answer, but if ever a model appears that can deal correctly with clouds that will be quite something. A	

29	2	The databased approaches have mostly been robust with changes at the high end around 3-4C and at the low end around 1.8 to 2.5C as noted in the chapter. It will be challenging to make this range shorter given the data requirements and uncertainties in data over paleo/haloacene periods. It seems reasonable to estimate that we may have ECS in the range of 3 to 4K (higher than 3.5K being less likely [21]) at the higher end and this should not prevent us from planning and thinking on ways to prevent this possible scenario as it could have major consequences for humans across the planet. The Report acknowledges that 4C is a reasonable upper bound for the likely range	[21] Michael Mann, Our Fragile Moment: How lessons from Earth's past can help us survive climate crisis, Hachette Group Inc., 2024.
32	3	The models range over a factor of three in ECS comparing the most sensitive to the least sensitive models. However vast majority of the models are in 3 to 3.5K sensitivity range and it is probably not correct to assign all models the same amount of importance, given the fact that some of institutes participating in the exercise have different levels of capacity to develop and test models. Only 5 of the models are between 3 and 3.5C. Some of the most reputable models have the highest values of ECS, including UK and US models The point made in this paragraph is that research over several decades has not reduced the range of model ECS. For observers who rely on model outputs this is very concerning and again goes to the question of fitness for purpose, as posed in the prior paragraph.	
34	1	While this analysis for the CMIP6 model set is accurate and focuses on a dataset that has shown higher ECS than previous iterations. it should be noted the models have exhibited considerable skill in predicting the subsequent GMST warming[22]. The criticism of the CMIP6 based high ECS models may be premature and probably will have to wait additional time before passing judgement. As noted in [22] these models have shown considerable skill when evaluated on their projections over the past 30-40 years after the projections were published. Figure 5.3 in the Report clearly refutes this assertion Hausfather et al. did examine early model-obs matches but only using models that had relatively low ECS. The Scaffeta analysis covered a longer interval (1980-2021) than the Hausfather et al. analysis of SAR (1995-2017) and TAR (2001-2017). Its findings line up with Fig 5.3 and the tropospheric evidence in Fig 5.4.	[22] Hausfather, Z., Drake, H. F., Abbott, T., & Schmidt, G. A. (2020). Evaluating the performance of past climate model projections. Geophysical Research Letters, 47, e2019GL085378. https://doi.org/10.1029/2019GL085378
36	1	A recent study attributes the bias to inter-annual availability and residual bias in the satellite record. The pre- and post 2000 have temperature records from two separate satellites and the discrepancy in the trends needs to be resolved[23] Chung et al. (using output through 2014 only) confirm the models' too-high warming rates and suggested two issues that might contribute to at least part of the discrepancy: (1) the differential phasing of natural, ephemeral events such as El Niños between models and observations and (2) a possible spurious cooling in UAH and NOAA/STAR satellite datasets around 2000. Regarding (1) we agree that the timing of major events like ENSOs diminishes the fidelity of models-to-observations comparisons for short periods, but now with 46 years of record as well as two major El Niño warm events since 2014 in the observations, the results shown in Fig. 5.7 are quite appropriate for comparison. Regarding (2) Christy et al. 2018 (and later Zou et al 2023) specifically examined the divergence around 2000 between UAH and NOAA/STAR vs. RSS and UW demonstrating that RSS and UW's use of the aging and drifting NOAA-14 satellite relative to the new, highly calibrated NOAA-15 sensor contributed to a spurious warming in RSS and UW. Be that as it may, CWG Fig. 5.7 is clear in noting all models overestimate the tropical temperature trend relative to observations – model trends being even more positive than those of RSS and the two Reanalyses (in addition to UAH and NOAA/STAR).	[23] Chung, ES., Kim, SJ., Sohn, BJ. et al. Multi-decadal climate variability and satellite biases have amplified model-observation discrepancies in tropical troposphere warming estimates. Commun Earth Environ 5, 342 (2024). https://doi.org/10.1038/s43247-024-01510-8

38	3	This is challenge we need to face and work on improving the parametrizations. The new era of super high resolution models would resolve the complex interactions of turbulence, transport and clouds and will provide less uncertainty[24]. However, this can't be used to invalidate the entire set of models, the models are performing remarkably well given the complex system that is being modeled. It should be noted the models do cover the range of the observations and it is not outside the envelope of model predictions. The Report does not address invalidating the entire set of models. Rather we address the fitness-for-purpose of the models for policy making Fig 5.6 shows that to the extent there is a match with observations, it comes from models with very little CO2 response. “However, this can't be used to invalidate the entire set of models, the models are performing remarkably well given the complex system that is being modeled.” This statement is not supported by the evidence unless and until “remarkably well” is metricized for us to examine and make a determination. The paper cited doesn’t exactly apply to the real world (looking at Fig 1 doesn’t give one much confidence in models), but does give insight into the various models as best we can tell.	[24] Merlis, T. M., Guendelman, I., Cheng, K.-Y., Harris, L., Chen, Y.-T., Bretherton, C. S., et al. (2024). The vertical structure of tropical temperature change in global storm-resolving model simulations of climate change. <i>Geophysical Research Letters</i>, 51, e2024GL111549. https://doi.org/10.1029/2024GL111549
40	4	Part of the problem here may be which part of the stratosphere is sampled and the importance of interannual variabilities in the lower part of the stratosphere. [25] have shown that including the stratosphere as defined from 25 to 50km there is high confidence that the cooling signal caused by CO2 increase is detectable and beyond the noise levels of the natural and interannual variability in the lowest part of the stratosphere. We should put this debate to rest. Santer et al. (2023) has been added to the references with this text: Santer et al. (2023) use updated data to show that a cooling trend has not re-emerged in the lower stratosphere.	[25] B.D. Santer, S. Po-Chedley, L. Zhao, C. Zou, Q. Fu, S. Solomon, D.W.J. Thompson, C. Mears, & K.E. Taylor, Exceptional stratospheric contribution to human fingerprints on atmospheric temperature, <i>Proc. Natl. Acad. Sci. U.S.A.</i> 120(20) e2300758120, https://doi.org/10.1073/pnas.2300758120 (2023).
42	2	Given the large uncertainties in obtaining data over much of the Northern Hemisphere, using a smaller regional analysis to discount the models may be inappropriate. We should that this remains a question we need to resolve developing better datasets with more seasonal and sub-seasonal coverage to test the model on a global scale The reviewer’s points are fine but it is important in the context of this report to point out discrepancies in the way models on some key continental-scale metrics such as, in this case, snow cover. This section directly addresses a region that is important to estimates of the Social Cost of Carbon in the context of agricultural productivity, again reiterating that the models are not fit for the purpose of policy making.	

44	3	This statement from [26] refers to the fitness of global scale models to resolve regional scale features and argues for developing model at higher spatial resolutions. Using downscaling and other techniques additional insights can be gained at regional scales and provide information for a set of 'purposes'. However, we should work on getting to regional and local scales with GCMs as quickly as possible. The current model structural forms may not be adequate for resolving all of these issues merely by increasing spatial resolution. Simulating change at regional to local scales depends on getting the internal variability of the ocean correct, which is only partly a resolution issue.	
47	2	Looking for trends or estimating trends in extreme events in current and future climate is not necessarily an attribution study. Estimating frequency, duration and intensity of events helps understand the changing range of the hazard (if there is one). An attribution would be to find to what extent a particular event is influenced or affected by increase in CO2. I would consider these two not to be the same. We explain the distinction between detection and attribution	
47	3	Attributing any single event to changing climate is perilous, agreed. Yes. -	
47	5	As noted by [26] there is not yet any strong evidence that LPT is a fact We have eliminated mention of LPT explicitly, but retain elements of the text surrounding long term variability.	[26]Cohn, T. A., and H. F. Lins (2005), Nature's style: Naturally trendy, Geophysics. Res. Lett., 32, L23402, doi:10.1029/2005GL024476.
57	2	I am not sure how one can conclude that the temperature extremes have decreased based on figure 6.3.4. If I understand correctly the Tmax-Tmin for each year was tabulated and a mean of this difference averaged over the 100+ years was subtracted from these values to get some thing like a anomaly. This anomaly seems to have moved from +3F to -3F over the course of 400 years and now trending upwards again. This suggests to me that there has been significant changes in the extremes over the years and the most recent trend is towards warmer highs? For each station and each year, the hottest day and coldest night are determined and their difference computed. These differences are then geographically averaged for the CONUS and then an overall average is removed to show the results as a type of anomaly. Reviewer 1 is correct, as indicated in the text, Tmin temperatures are almost universally rising more rapidly than Tmax, hence, the difference (or range) has declined overall. A check of CMIP6 models for the CONUS under ssp4.5 shows half with TMax rising faster than TMin and (obviously) half vice versa—so there is no clear signal from models that matches the observations. The flattening (or slight rise in the metric) in the past 20 years is clearly within the natural range, but does reveal an interesting stair-step pattern with rapid declines centered around the 1940's and 1990's and relatively flat periods in between. An explanation is under investigation, and a leading hypothesis is that there was rapid growth of manufactured surfaces around weather stations in the 1940s.	

		Then, in the 1960s-80s many stations were re-located to relatively rural airports, which then experienced subsequent growth in manufactured surfaces around their weather stations in the 1990s. Thus, rapid nighttime warming in the 1940s and 1990s.	
58	3	The NCA5 is suggesting that the western US is experiencing increase in extreme heat (page 57, para 4); it seems like figure 6.3.5 establishes the fact and not contradict. There was no claim of pervasive (all CONUS) increase in the report We have deleted the sentence “The NCA5 heading “The Risk of Temperature Extremes is Changing” suggests pervasive positive trends are now being observed in threshold temperatures, but that is not evident in the figures above.” Not worth going into more detail in this report	
59	4	The definition of heat wave as consecutive 6 days seems to be a special case. The standard definition is exceedance of 85 or 90 percentile for 2 or more days. I can't check with NCA5 as it was taken down from the web As correctly suggested by Reviewer 1, there are numerous ways to define a heat wave. CWG chose to follow one definition discussed in NCA4 (pg 191) and use 6 consecutive days with Tmax > 90th percentile so as to allow for consistent comparisons. However, changing the parameters will do little to alter the fundamental result that the 1920's to early 1950's contain the major heat wave events for the CONUS.	
60	1,2	Figure 6.3.6 establishes that heatwaves as defined here have increased in the west and have shown increasing trend all over CONUS in the past 50 years. [27] shows the results for the last 60 years and there is little doubt that there is an increase over most of the CONUS, again the NCA5 report is off the web; figure 6.3.7 shows the heat waves are monotonically increasing from the 1960. Including the longer data is only interesting in the dust bowl 1930 camouflage the signal somewhat for the Midwest and central plains. The problem of taking averages over large regions (for example entire CONUS) is that it kills the peak signals and smooths out the emergent climate change indicators. Doing continental averages to look for extremes is really not very useful. Secondly, there is no particular reason to assume that the climate change signal (i.e. the number of heat waves) should showing up 100 years ago, as the CO2 in the atmosphere started to be of significance in the last 50 years. As discussed in the CWG text, the EPA chart is (1) based on nighttime temperatures in the 50 largest US cities and (2) begins in 1961 which was the start of the coolest decade in over 100 years, thereby preconditioning the chart to have an upward trend. Urbanization is most clearly seen in nighttime temperature increases so this does not represent a change in the background climate, but more likely the local climates of cities. Rural areas show less nighttime warming. And, avoiding earlier warm periods does not provide information on the larger scale of natural variability. We have added a sentence at the end of Section 6.3 “Irrespective of the ultimate cause of regional trends, heatwaves have important effects on society which must be addressed, as we discuss in Chapter 10. “	[27] https://www.epa.gov/climate-indicators/climate-change-indicators-heat-waves

61	4	averaged over all stations in the region, none of these trend parameters is statistically significant'. This is again how one would be looking at statistics of extremes in precipitation. As we know, precipitation is highly heterogenous and location dependent. As observed there are trends even with the approaches chosen by the authors of this study compared to NCA5 and averaging that over and saying there is no trend seems disingenuous. We summarize the site-specific trends as well as the regional average. The rationale for looking at the regional average is that a GHG signal should cover a wide area.	
62	2	same argument as above We summarize the site-specific trends as well as the regional average. The rationale for looking at the regional average is that a GHG signal should cover a wide area.	
63	box	again the issue here is that we are talking about events that are happening in a short-time and over a small region. Averaging over time and space and develop statistics is probably not appropriate when we are talking about events such as the recent flooding event in Texas. If you average that event over 30 days, it will seem unremarkable. Extreme event totals are 1-day to 5-day,s depending on section discussed. The point being made in the Box is that if you use a too-short record you may underestimate natural variability. It is We're not sure how the reviewer's comment challenges this.	
64	1	As noted in NCA5 and shown in the analysis presented in figure 6.4.4 there is a clear trend of increase in extreme precipitation in 12 of the 27 stations analyzed. Again averaging over the entire region is not the best method for picking extreme precipitation events that are local both in time and space. We summarize the site-specific trends as well as the regional average. The rationale for looking at the regional average is that a GHG signal should cover a wide area. Also in this case we point out that the NE behaves differently than other regions.	

69	2	However, there is evidence that flash droughts, which last weeks have increased over the Northeast and Midwest [28] The paper referenced by Reviewer 1 begins with data so recent (1999) that it cannot provide evidence for long-term changes in drought as evidenced in the US Drought Monitor (DM) even though it suggests an increase in "flash droughts" over that period. Keep in mind, the DM is a product of subjective interpretation and objective measures - objective measures that have changed considerably during the past 25 years – thus is not metrically consistent. (One of the CWG authors was an official contributor to the DM for 15 years.) One would wonder what would the 1920's, 30's and early 50's reveal if the DM was operational back then? A more consistent metric is provided in CWG Fig. 6.7.1.	[28] Ronald D. Leeper, Rocky Bilotta, Bryan Petersen, Crystal J. Stiles, Richard Heim, Brian Fuchs, Olivier P. Prat, Michael Palecki, Steve Ansari
70	2	More recent analysis indicate forest loss due to wildfire accelerating over the recent past [29]. In particular there has been an increase in extreme fire radiative power with a 2 fold increase from 2003 to 2023 (period of satellite data availability) [30] [31]. However, that these fires are not out-of-sample and there is a fire deficit as shown in figure 6.8.2 should be acknowledged. But this doesn't alleviate the concern that wildfire is leading to lot of socio-economic concerns and needs to be addressed [32] New sentence added: However there is evidence that the intensity of fires in some regions is worsening (Cunningham et al. 2024) and that wildfires resulted in a net loss of global forest cover over 2001-2019 (Tyukavina et al. 2022).	[29] Tyukavina Alexandra, Potapov Peter, Hansen Matthew C., Pickens Amy H., Stehman Stephen V., Turubanova Svetlana, Parker Diana, Zalles Viviana, Lima André, Kommareddy Indrani, Song Xiao-Peng, Wang Lei, Harris Nancy; Global Trends of Forest Loss Due to Fire From 2001 to 2019, Frontiers in Remote Sensing. Volume 3 – 2022, 2022. [30] Cunningham, C.X., Williamson, G.J. & Bowman, D.M.J.S. Increasing frequency and intensity of the most extreme wildfires on Earth. Nat Ecol Evol 8, 1420–1425 (2024). https://doi.org/10.1038/s41559-024-02452-2 [31] Patrick H. Freeborn, W. Matt Jolly, Mark A. Cochrane, Gareth Roberts, Large wildfire driven increases in nighttime fire activity observed across CONUS from 2003–2020, Remote Sensing of Environment, Volume 268, 2022, 12777 [32] Parks, S.A., Guiterman, C.H., Margolis, E.Q. et al. A fire deficit persists across diverse North American forests despite recent increases in area burned. Nat Commun 16, 1493 (2025). https://doi.org/10.1038/s41467-025-56333-8
71	3	The question of forest management and its role on wildfire frequency and intensity is interesting and deserves further study. We agree	
80	1	The global mean sea-level was increasing at a rate of 0.08 inches/yr in 1993 compared 0.18 inches/yr in 2023, almost double the rate [33], which is approximately what is needed to meet the NOAA projections by mid-century and seems plausible. We don't judge it to be implausible	[33] Hamlington, B.D., Bellas-Manley, A., Willis, J.K. et al. The rate of global sea level rise doubled during the past three decades. Commun Earth Environ 5, 601 (2024). https://doi.org/10.1038/s43247-024-01761-5

88	3	A possible reason the method used by IPCC (optimal fingerprinting) can be considered to address McKitnick criticism is in [34] We have added citation cite Chen et al. They mostly just reiterate my <u>the same points as McKitnick (2022)</u>. They propose a resolution to one part of the problem but it requires very restrictive assumptions.	[34]Chen, H., Chen, S.X. & Mu, M. A statistical review on the optimal fingerprinting approach in climate change studies. Clim Dyn 62, 1439–1446 (2024). https://doi.org/10.1007/s00382-023-06975-5
92	4	The role of clouds remains the single most uncertainty in climate modeling, I am glad this was acknowledged here. Agreed	
93	3	The substance of this paragraph was addressed in my comments in earlier sections. Some of the claims made here are either exaggerations of the usual practice (RCP8.5 being referred to as BAU) or the comment about not fit for purpose (a comment extracted from a publication that is calling out for cloud resolved models. Presumably the reviewer agrees RCP8.5 should not be used as a BAU scenario, so we are in agreement. The Palmer and Stevens paper nonetheless says the models are not currently fit for purpose.	
105	2,3,4,5	The problem with both the FACE studies and the soybean. Maize and wheat studies cited here are that they don't consider the effect of increase in temperature, changes in precipitation, humidity and other environmental factors along with CO2 increases. These compound effects have been shown in wide number of studies [35] [36][37][38][39]. A meta analysis of the compound effects shows that increase in CO2, along with temperature, precipitation changes effects the quality of the cereal and yields[40]. Another recent study evaluated the impacts on C3 and C4 crops and conclude that CO2 enrichment for C3 crops could increase but will be compensated by temperature increase. CO2 fertilization effect was found to be small for C4 [41]. It is important therefore that we consider the compound effects on crop yields and not just focus on CO2 enrichment. The reviewer is correct that compound effects need to be considered, and indeed one of the problems with a lot of econometric papers on climate change and agriculture is they only look at heat and ignore the CO2 enrichment (Taylor and Schlenker being an important exception). Since our remit was impacts of CO2 emissions a brief discussion of FACE plot experiments and other CO2-only experiments is on topic. We discuss meta-analysis of multivariate (compound) experiments in Section 9.3.	[35] Ruiz-Vera UM, Siebers M, Gray SB, Drag DW, Rosenthal DM, Kimball BA, Ort DR, Bernacchi CJ. Global warming can negate the expected CO2 stimulation in photosynthesis and productivity for soybean grown in the Midwestern United States. Plant Physiol. 2013 May;162(1):410-23 [36] Levine LH, Richards JT, Wheeler RM. Super-elevated CO2 interferes with stomatal response to ABA and night closure in soybean (Glycine max). J Plant Physiol. 2009 Jun 1;166(9):903-13. [37] Večeřová K, Oravec M, Puranik S, Findurová H, Veselá B, Opoku E, Ofori-Amanfo KK, Klem K, Urban O, Sahu PP. Single and interactive effects of variables associated with climate change on wheat metabolome. Front Plant Sci. 2022 Oct 10;13:1002561. [38] Thomas, J.M.G., Boote, K.J., Allen, L.H., Gallo-Meagher, M. and Davis, J.M. (2003), Elevated Temperature and Carbon Dioxide Effects on Soybean Seed Composition and Transcript Abundance. Crop Sci., 43:1548-1557. https://doi.org/10.2135/cropsci2003.1548 [39] Lesk, C., Anderson, W., Rigden, A. et al. Compound heat and moisture extreme impacts on global crop yields under climate change. Nat Rev Earth Environ 3, 872–889 (2022). https://doi.org/10.1038/s43017-022-00368-8 [40] Ben Mariem S, Soba D, Zhou B, Loladze I, Morales F, Aranjuelo I. Climate Change, Crop Yields, and Grain Quality of C3 Cereals: A Meta-Analysis of [CO2], Temperature, and Drought Effects. Plants. 2021; 10(6):1052. https://doi.org/10.3390/plants10061052 [41] Rezaei, E.E., Webber, H., Asseng, S. et al. Climate change impacts on crop yields. Nat Rev Earth Environ 4, 831–846 (2023). https://doi.org/10.1038/s43017-023-00491-0

106	1	Taylor and Schlenker 2021 also note that 'Climate change will likely have negative impact on agriculture in aggregate, especially in regions exposed to extreme heat. And the CO2-driven yield increases may be offset by effects on food nutrition and quality'. However, the results for US have been a net positive in the recent past but not true in the lower latitudes. Extreme heat may be a net negative, but thus far the overall effects have been positive. Regarding nutrition loss see Section 9.4	
111	1,2	The criticism of NOAA Billion dollar map is likely warranted as it was never completely transparent how the data was generated. However, changing the baseline assumption and refactoring the data using a different set of criteria to make the effects smaller also doesn't make sense. We should continue collecting this data and make the data accessible for researchers and peer review. Figure 10.1 doesn't address these issues, it is another methodology with unknown provenance of the data. We agree that data collection, dissemination and transparency are key. Fig 10.1 is traceable as an indicator though we don't regard it as the final word on the subject either. *	
117	3	Climate change can be expected to increase cold weather extremes in regions that have not been exposed to these effects Not sure what the reviewer's point is.	
118	3	The same Nobel prize winning model in its most recent study concludes that [42] "We conclude with three results relevant for climate policy. First, both current policies (base run) and the extended Paris Accord fall short of limiting global warming to 2 °C or to the cost-benefit optimal level. Second, the economic stakes in global climate policy are substantial, with estimated net present value of economic benefits around \$120 trillion from the cost-benefit optimal policy. Third, once differences in discounting are considered, the baseline DICE-2023 estimate of the social cost of carbon (\$66/tCO₂ for 2020) aligns closely with other recent estimates". Obviously this is the latest and the current version of the model and these results are quite different from thus discussed on this page. These conclusions should also be included in this discussion to avoid selective reading of the literature. We discuss Barrage and Nordhaus (2024) on p. 121.	[42] L. Barrage, & W. Nordhaus, Policies, projections, and the social cost of carbon: Results from the DICE-2023 model, Proc. Natl. Acad. Sci. U.S.A. 121 (13) e2312030121, https://doi.org/10.1073/pnas.2312030121 (2024).

120	1	Similar empirical studies [43] point to "Using an empirical approach that provides a robust lower bound on the persistence of impacts on economic growth, we find that the world economy is committed to an income reduction of 19% within the next 26 years independent of future emission choices (relative to a baseline without climate impacts, likely range of 11–29% accounting for physical climate and empirical uncertainty). These damages already outweigh the mitigation costs required to limit global warming to 2 °C by sixfold over this near-term time frame and thereafter diverge strongly dependent on emission choices. Committed damages arise predominantly through changes in average temperature, but accounting for further climatic components raises estimates by approximately 50% and leads to stronger regional heterogeneity. Committed losses are projected for all regions except those at very high latitudes, at which reductions in temperature variability bring benefits. The largest losses are committed at lower latitudes in regions with lower cumulative historical emissions and lower present-day income". This study uses more of the daily temperature precipitation from 1600 hundred locations world wide instead of global means. There are numerous studies that show the cost, many described in the COP 21 and follow-on meetings The Kotz et al. paper is subject to a cautionary notice at the Nature website that "the reliability of data and methodology presented in this manuscript is currently in question." [HYPERLINK "https://www.nature.com/articles/s41586-024-07219-0"] The literature showing growth effects of temperature increase is pretty robust. And though we don't cite it, there is a new paper just accepted at Climate Change Economics by McKittrick and Devina Lakhtakia adding to the evidence using 2 newly-constructed global data bases.	[43] Kotz, M., Levermann, A. & Wenz, L. The economic commitment of climate change. Nature 628, 551–557 (2024). https://doi.org/10.1038/s41586-024-07219-0
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Page	para	Comment or Suggested Edit
		The report indicates numerous examples of uncertainties in climate science. It would be extremely helpful if these uncertainties were made more explicit, listed in a concluding section, and prioritized in some way - what are the top 10 priority research areas? If the opening remarks by Secretary Wright and the title pointed to uncertainties and the need for more research, I believe this report will be better received. As I read the report and left review comments below, I bolded items where I gather the authors imply that research is needed. Consider including these kinds of statements throughout and adding a summary. An interesting suggestion but with the time constraints <u>we</u> suggest this be deferred to a separate report.
viii	3	This would be more correct: "Some scenarios of future CO2 emissions overestimate observed levels" Sentence has been removed
viii	5	This would be more correct: Some detailed climate models run "hot" in their simulation of the climate of the past few decades, while many have underestimated the amount of surface warming. More research is needed to select the most skillful and reliable models. The need for more research on model development is implicit. Again, this would be a good topic for a separate report.
viii	6	Need reference for: "Claims of increased frequency or intensity of hurricanes, tornadoes, floods, and droughts are not supported by historical data." More research is needed to identify how frequency and intensity of weather events are affected by environmental conditions. The ES statements are all supported by the document chapters; but suggest we added references to specific sections.
4ff		It is misleading to separate the photo-chemical effects of CO2 from the temperature effects. Extreme heat is hard on plants, causing them to lose water, close stomata, etc. It depends on the plant and the degree of heat. More research is needed to understand how the temperature (mean and variability) affects plant productivity and resilience. 1" paragraph of Section 2.1, Added sentence "Here we focus just on CO2 fertilization; research on combined effects due to temperature and precipitation changes are discussed in Chapter 10."
7		Again it is misleading to separate the CO2 and the temperature effects on the oceans. The warming surface waters is having significant impact on ocean fish and habitats due to the overall increase in global temperatures This section is specifically on changing alkalinity. We haven't included a review of temperature effects on fish populations: it is one of the impacts topics we were not able to survey.
14	4	More accurate to say "because their effect remain largely unknown". Good examples include natural aerosols (sea salt, dust, biogenic aerosols). Are there others to mention? More research is needed to understand radiative effects of both natural and anthropogenic sources of radiative variability throughout the atmospheric column. Sentence added: "Natural sources of global energy imbalance other than volcanoes and total solar irradiance (TSI) are not included in these graphs because their effects remain largely unknown."
17	figure	What scenarios are the models using in this figure? SRES, as stated in text, also others including Hansen A,B,C and others as described in the Hausfather et al. paper.

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19		Vegetation is only one way that CO2 is accommodated by land processes, the other is through soils and microbial processes Microbial dynamics is complex and challenging to understand but may also be a way to boost CO2 absorption by soils (which also enriches the soil nutrients!). More research is needed to better understand how plants and soil systems remove CO2 from the atmosphere. Noted.
19	5	More research is needed to improve the understanding and representation of land systems, carbon and nutrient fluxes in models. Noted.
20		Carbon uptake by oceans and ocean ecosystems is less well studied and modeled. The lack of spread of carbon in ocean models may result from insufficient information, ocean biogeochemistry, ecosystems and model development. More research is needed to study and model carbon, nutrient and ecosystem processes and dynamics in ocean models. Noted.
		More research is needed to map warming trends in urban, non-urban and other environments and to ensure accurate representation of regional and global trends in temperature. Noted.
27	2	"This practice" - need to clarify whether this refers to "emergent property" or discarding. I believe the authors mean the latter, but it should be made more clear Sentence rewritten: "Parameter tuning to yield an ECS target was commonplace for the models used in AR4; modelers have moved away from this practice with time."
27	3	"assumed positive cloud feedback" - this is an emergent property too, based on simulation/observation. Should be rephrased to not use the word "assumed". Further research is needed to better understand and model how clouds change with temperature and what the feedback effects are on the radiative balance. Need to clarify if cloud feedbacks are assumed, imposed or both? Can be handled editorially by deciding whether to delete "assumed" or not; deleting it allows it to remain as an implicit modifier.
		Further research is needed to narrow the uncertainty on climate sensitivity, both using models and observations. Noted.
33		The text and figure refer to 33 models, which would include the best and worst. How much does the uncertainty/range change for a subset of best-performing models? The modeling community doesn't have a leaderboard of best-to-worst models. Some of the "prestige" models from the US and UK have very high sensitivities, but they are preferred by many users for particular applications.
34	figure	How many models are included in each case? High ECS 14, Medium ECS 11, Low ECS 13. This has been added to Figure caption.
36	figure 5.4	How are the lower and mid-troposphere defined? Standard definitions in the paper: LT surface to ~9km, MT surface to ~15 km. Added in the Fig caption.
37	4	"excess amplification" - amplification of what? And Figure 5.6 shows tropics, is this bias only tropical? Sentence changed: "Another important model-observational discrepancy is the excess amplification or warming with altitude..." The bias is only observed in the tropics but the amplification pattern is only predicted in the tropics. Also bear in mind the tropics is nearly half the atmosphere and is where most solar energy enters the climate system.

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38		Further research is needed to improve how models represent clouds and dynamics; additional observations are also needed to improve these representations. Noted.
42		Further research is needed to improve how models represent planetary albedo to align with observations. Noted.
		The greater concern with hurricanes is the amount of moisture they carry and drop after landfall, i.e. flooding. While this is an active area of research, it is worth noting that this may be the bigger issue for hurricane change with warming <i>This is covered in the AR6 assessment as quoted, as it's one of the intensity metrics. Currently too little data to assess for trends.</i>
56-57		The concern for many are the extreme hot temperatures without night-time cooling that provides an opportunity for recovery. This section doesn't address this. In this regard, the focus on the difference between extreme hot and extreme cold is misleading when generalizing about decrease in extremes (figure 6.3.4) - the decrease is because we don't have as much extreme cold. <i>This metric is covered by the data in Sect 6.3.3.</i>
60		Combining heat and humidity as a measure of extreme heat is not unusual since it is this combination that is most impactful to human health - the body cannot cool if the humidity and heat are both high. Since a warmer atmosphere holds more moisture, and CO2 causes heat (and therefore moisture) to increase, this combination is a relevant assessment of the effects of CO2 on extreme conditions that make it difficult for people. Also combining with urban regions is helpful since that is where most people live. These points are not made in the report and are important. <i>Sentence be changed to read: "Given the heatwave definition and urban focus, while these increasing values since 1960 point to a growing human impact they are not informative about long term trends or..."</i> <i>Added sentence at end of paragraph (Irrespective of the ultimate cause of regional trends, heatwaves have important effects on society which must be addressed, as we discuss in Chapter 10.) this should address reviewer concerns.</i>
		Patterns and variability of precipitation are poorly understood and models are particularly challenged to represent and predict precipitation, further research in this area is needed Noted.
		The authors rightly describe the extreme uncertainty regarding sea level rise. It would be helpful to add some information about the complex, highly nonlinear and uncertain processes involved with ice-sheet dynamics and ice-sheet - ocean interactions that are especially key for Antarctica. More research is needed to study and model ice sheet dynamics and ice-sheet ocean interactions. <i>Noted. Conveying ice sheet and ocean dynamics in that much detail beyond our scope but would belong in a separate report.</i>
84	3	Further research is needed on climate variability, effects of ocean circulation, solar variability, model simulation of variability and statistical methods. Noted.
87-88		Anthropogenic aerosol effects may also influence the inflections in temperature in ways that are challenging to account for Noted.
91	2 and 3	Reductions in aerosol indirect (cloud brightening) effects may also explain the reduced planetary albedo, not just from ships but from reduced fossil fuel aerosols coming from the continents, China and east Asia especially. This paper describes the reduction in aerosols https://www.nature.com/articles/s41612-023-00488-y This is another area that needs further research! Noted.

94	table 8.1	What are the numbers in the 3rd column? Please include in the caption. Good point. Added to caption: "Numbers refer to footnotes in original source that specify locations or region-specific confidence levels."
95	2	I don't see an inconsistency between what Ch 11 and Ch 8 say. The first is about precipitation, droughts, tropical cyclones, heat - overall. The 2nd (ch 8) is about specific types of events in specific regions. Suggest to soften the statement about the contrasting assertions. Sentences at issue are "Evidence of observed changes in extremes and their attribution to human influence (including greenhouse gas and aerosol emissions and land-use changes) has strengthened since AR5, in particular for extreme precipitation, droughts, tropical cyclones and compound extremes" versus "No evidence of emergence in the historical period of a change in river floods, heavy precipitation, drought, fire weather, severe wind storms, and tropical cyclones". It seems apparent to me/us that these statements are in conflict.
		The science of attribution of extreme events is challenging and computationally expensive; this is an area where further research is needed with potential to use AI to improve statistics Noted. Not sure about the computationally intensive point: many just run univariate GEV models and overinterpret the results. AI won't fix the bad methodology.
104		This section seems to gloss over many key points. Certainly there are limits where extreme heat and drought (water is key) could be detrimental to crops. It also depends on which crops. There is extensive literature on how certain crop viability is shifting. So a region with particular crop experience and cultivation may no longer be able to sustain that agriculture. There is cost to shifting crops across regions and farmers that needs to be accounted for. And water is key - is there enough water in various regions for energy (power plants need water) as well as agriculture when conditions are very hot for sustained periods? The comment seems to be about the validity of the underlying literature rather than our summary of it. The econometric lit tries to synthesize patterns over large areas to get at overall trends, rather than the agronomy focus on specific sites and crops.
111		Severe weather continues to disproportionately impact lower income communities as well as business that requires outdoor exposure. A thorough analysis would need to include these points and I recommend adding this caveat to the section. This is specifically addressed in Section 10.3.2
		Related to my previous comment, deaths due to extreme heat conditions appear to be increasing, particularly for certain populations and for those with underlying health conditions (which can be hard to detangle when attributing mortality). For example https://jamanetwork.com/journals/jamanetworkopen/fullarticle/2792389 Again this topic is specifically addressed in Section 10.3.2
114		An additional concern is if the grid fails under either extreme heat demands or cold/severe-storm events, the impact on communities will not be uniform and depends on grid infrastructure which can be better in more affluent communities Good point. We don't discuss what makes for grid stability versus instability, especially in the context of many jurisdictions closing reliable power plants and opting for intermittent renewables, but the correlation between extreme weather and the likelihood of power failure is an important topic.
		The impacts of sea level rise and coastal inundation on coastal communities and in low-lying countries should be addressed. This will have impacts particularly on certain countries/regions but also on world economics Good point. The topic is germane but runs into the limits of what we can cover in our limited time. To some extent it is covered in the economics chapter since IAM damage functions include effects of sea level rise on coastal areas.

		Research is needed to better understood the likelihood and impacts of various tipping points, including changes to ocean circulation patterns, ice sheet acceleration, sea-ice loss, die-off of tropical forests, thawing of permafrost, etc. Noted. Hopefully our discussion clarifies the different types of “tipping point” topics.
		Do the authors think it worthwhile for private or public research, such as at DOE, to seek breakthrough technology that might effectively remove massive amounts of CO2 from the atmosphere? No comment

ch	pg	para	Comment or Suggested Edit
Overarching	Overarching	Overarching	• I would like to thank the authors for the opportunity to provide comment on this report. Providing decision-makers with information about the impacts of carbon dioxide emissions on the U.S. climate is critical as they face consequential decisions about the future of energy, agricultural, and environmental policy. Assessments of the science such as IPCC reports and the NCA benefit from undergoing robust review including expert review, public review, and government review with review comments and responses made publicly available. Similarly, important government reports and regulations undergo inter-agency review and are published in the Federal Register for a full notice and comment process and publish a public response to comment. While these processes are far from perfect, they offer the opportunity for improvement and help lend authority to the final products, and I highly encourage you to undertake a similar robust and open peer review process for this report to enhance the report’s credibility in the eyes of decision-makers and the public.
Executive Summary	viii	1	• There is a disconnect between the stated intent of the report by the authors in the preface, “whether carbon dioxide emissions endanger the U.S. public,” and this executive summary, as well as the organization of the report. Would suggest aligning by either reframing the focus in the preface to better match the organization of the report, or better aligning the report organization with the stated focus. Preface has been reworded and the statement eliminated. We have also changed the title to clarify this
Preface	ix	3	• “While the report is intended to be accessible to non-experts, we have omitted some introductory or explanatory material that can easily be accessed elsewhere. Nor have we attempted to survey entire literatures related to the topics covered.” • While this approach is understandable given the time constraints this report was produced under, given the level of visibility this report will have, it potentially opens up the report to criticism of being misleading by omission – focusing on areas where the authors disagree with the broader scientific literature and omitting areas large areas that are known about climate where there is less disagreement. New addition suggested above deals with this; also paragraph 2.
Preface	ix	3	• “We have focused as much as possible on literature published since 2020 and referenced previous IPCC and NCA assessment reports. We have also used data through 2024 where possible.” • This is a good approach for this report; however, much of the literature cited is from pre-2020, and many of the references to IPCC and NCA reports are to older reports (e.g. NCA 4 and IPCC AR 4&5) instead of NCA 5 and IPCC reports from the 6th assessment cycle. In these sections that heavily cite this older literature, it is not clear if the newer literature does not address these points or if the issues raised in the older literature are resolved or significantly changed in the newer literature. We have included reference to previous assessment reports where the analysis is insightful and not superseded by later reports. We note that we regard NCA4 as far more credible than NCA5

Preface	ix	3	• The IPCC’s mandate is to assess the scientific literature comprehensively, including a range of views, and report disagreements. This report has a tendency to selectively quote the IPCC focusing on disagreements and excluding areas where scientists agree. This approach risks giving a misleading picture of the state of the science through omission. A possible way to address this is to have a section summarizing areas of agreement by pointing to all statements of fact and high confidence statements from IPCC AR6 before digging into the more controversial areas with disagreement. This could be a short discussion about areas of agreement up front before explaining the focus of this report on these areas of disagreement, with the IPCC statements of fact and high confidence statements included in an appendix. • The report also includes only a very small subset of the literature since 2020. The authors should describe the approach to how they selected the literature included, and if possible, point to any systematic ways excluded literature could lead to different conclusions. • It is also notable that there a fair amount of new analysis in this report done by the authors that has not yet been peer reviewed. It would be good to flag these spots with a note about why these are needed while other related peer reviewed articles are excluded. <i>This is addressed to some extent in the revised Preface</i>
1	2	1	• If the goal of this report is to discuss links between CO2 and climate, this is an odd way to begin the report with a focus on differences between CO2 and criteria air pollutants. <i>It clears up a confusion of language that persists</i>
1	2	1	• “It is an issue of concern because of its potential effects on the global climate, a complex issue that occupies much of this report.” Suggest deleting the word potential as the existence of the effect is not disputed. <i>Deleted: “potential”</i>
1	2	4	• “But the primary concern about CO2 is its role as a greenhouse gas (GHG) that alters the earth’s energy balance.” Would add “warming the planet” to the end of this sentence as the qualitative effect is not debated and the concern is not about the energy balance itself but about the warming effects of the imbalance. <i>Added: “warming the planet”</i>
2	3	1	• “The recent decline in pH is within the range of natural variability on millennial time scales. Most ocean life evolved when the oceans were mildly acidic. Decreasing pH might adversely affect corals, although the Australian Great Barrier Reef has shown considerable growth in recent years.” • Note that the IPCC Special Report on the Ocean and Cryosphere in a Changing Climate (SROCC) finds that pH decline has very likely emerged from natural variability. SROCC SPM A.2.5, “Open ocean surface pH has declined by a very likely range of 0.017–0.027 pH units per decade since the late 1980s, with the decline in surface ocean pH very likely to have already emerged from background natural variability for more than 95% of the ocean surface area.” <i>We have left this out since it relates to attribution, which is beyond the scope of what we are addressing in this chapter</i>
3	15	3	• “Instead, the IPCC has created various sets of scenarios meant to span a plausible range of possibilities” • Suggest changing “created” to “assessed” as the scenarios are created by the science community not the IPCC. <i>We have changed the wording to “used”</i>
3	16	4	• “The IEA trends, which are based on plausible extrapolations of current economic and demographic trends, run below the entire envelope of RCP projections, implying not only that RCP8.5 is dubious, but that even lower emission scenarios are unlikely.” • Burgess compares IEA to the two highest SSP-RCP scenarios, not to the full range. The last sentence of the paragraph is incorrect – the range in Burgess is only no climate policies which doesn’t include the lower RCPs. <i>The We find the labeling on the Burgess diagram unclear and hard to understand. The text has been revised and we added a reference to Pielke Jr et al 2022 which has a better presentation.</i>

3	17	2	• “As of 2023, global CO2 emissions have been tracking well below SSP7.0 and are even below SSP2-4.5.” • Note that near-term emissions are not necessarily a good predictor of long-term emissions, as the latter will depend on changes in population, demographics, technology, and policy that do not have the same influence on near-term emissions. Noted
3	22	6	• “In summary, while there is clearly warming in the land record, there is also evidence that it is biased upward by patterns of urbanization and that these biases have not been completely removed by the data processing algorithms used to produce climate data sets.” • Quantitative info would be helpful here. How large is the warming? How large might the bias be? This is a topic that needs revisiting. The quantitative estimates are 15+ years old
4	26	1	• The Chapter Summary doesn’t really capture the full tax of the chapter. Would suggest: Defining ECS/TCS, reporting values for ECS and uncertainties/methods, then reporting values for TCS, preferably with a sentence on what those values imply The terms are defined in the chapter
4	26	2	• “This raising of the lower bound is less justified; evidence since the AR6 finds the lower bound of the likely range to be around 1.8°C.” • This isn’t really discussed comprehensively in the chapter. It is discussed, in context of Nic Lewis’ research
4	26	3	• “The climate’s response to increasing concentrations of CO2 is central to the scientific debate on anthropogenic climate change” • Suggest rewording this to, “The magnitude of the climate’s response...” As currently worded it could be a bit misleading since the qualitative effect (i.e. increasing CO2 concentrations lead to increases in global average temperature) is not disputed – the uncertainty is around the magnitude of the effect. Reworded
4	26	6	• The text sites Dayaratna (2016), but this should be a reference to Dayaratna (2017) as listed in the reference section. Fixed
4	26	6	• “If ECS is very high (above 4.5°C) immediate aggressive emission controls become more imperative, whereas no CO2 emission controls are economically justifiable for ECS below 2.0°C (Dayaratna et al. 2016, 2020).” • This could use additional clarification as there are low and now carbon technologies that can be economically justified based on cost of energy alone, depending on technology, location, etc. We in the absence of specific source citations we have left the text as is. We are not aware of new low or new no carbon technologies that are affordable and scalable. Likewise, if energy conservation pays for the low carbon tech people would have been adopting them already.

4	26	6	• “Obtaining a precise estimate is impossible, so policy making needs to account for the uncertainty.” • The Social Cost of CO2 (SC-CO2) as used by the USG in regulatory impact analyses has always accounted for uncertainties in the ECS. EPA (2016) used a probability distribution for the ECS calibrated to IPCC AR4 findings (the most recent values available at the time) to harmonize the approach for the three models used (FUND, DICE, and PAGE). EPA (2023) updated the SC-CO2 in response to NAS recommendations (NAS 2017) to include a much fuller representation of the uncertainties in both ECS and TCR, and utilized a modular approach incorporating the Finite amplitude Impulse Response (FaIR) climate model, a reduced complexity climate model, with ECS and TCR distributions calibrated to IPCC AR6 to represent this uncertainty. • The Dayaratna (2017 & 2020) papers referenced here analyze sensitivity of a subset of the older models used in EPA (2016) to just ECS estimates. It would be helpful to address the advances in the broader literature that are discussed and represented in EPA (2023) as the focus of this report is on literature published since 2020. • EPA (2016) “Technical Support Document: Technical Update of the Social Cost of Carbon for Regulatory Impact Analysis Under Executive Order 12866 Interagency Working Group on Social Cost of Greenhouse Gases, United States Government.” https://www.epa.gov/sites/default/files/2016-12/documents/sc_co2_tsd_august_2016.pdf • EPA (2023) “Supplementary Material for the Regulatory Impact Analysis for the Final Rulemaking, ‘Standards of Performance for New, Reconstructed, and Modified Sources and Emissions Guidelines for Existing Sources: Oil and Natural Gas Sector Climate Review’ – EPA Report on the Social Cost of Greenhouse Gases: Estimates Incorporating Recent Scientific Advances.” Docket ID No. EPA-HQ-OAR-2021-0317. https://www.epa.gov/system/files/documents/2023-12/epa_scghg_2023_report_final.pdf • NAS (2017) “Valuing Climate Damages. Updating Estimation of the Social Cost of Carbon Dioxide” [HYPERLINK "https://nap.nationalacademies.org/catalog/24651/valuing-climate-damages-updating-estimation-of-the-social-cost-of"] Most of the topics are touched upon in Ch 11. The newer EPA approach (e.g. the FaIR model) don’t reflect a fundamentally different approach than before. Will discuss below.
4	28	2	• “Because of concerns about model tuning and the high sensitivity to cloud parameterizations, the IPCC AR6 (2021) did not rely on climate model simulations in their assessment of climate sensitivity, relying instead on data-driven methods.” • AR6 WGI 7.5.5 states this a little differently. IPCC’s assessment wasn’t “directly informed” but “ESMs remain essential tools.” Our statement is ok as is
4	29	3	• “For AR6, the IPCC placed primary weight on the results of Sherwood et al. (2020)…” • The IPCC assessed a large number of studies, not just Sherwood (2020). Our statement is ok as is. Sherwood et al was predominantly relied upon
5	32	1	• It would be helpful for the reader for this chapter to start with a summary figure (e.g. like IPCC AR6 WG1 – SPM.1 or Fig. 3.4). Currently, the chapter jumps right into details that will be difficult for anyone who is not a climate scientist or already versed in these issues to understand or interpret. Too late in the process to add a new figure
5	33	Figure	• “Figure 5.1 CMIP6 Average surface temperature range across 33 models and standard deviation using SSP5-85 scenario.” • SSP5-85 is an excessively high scenario that is not representative of current expectations of emissions projections. Suggest changing the figure for on with data from a less misleading and more representative scenario. The use of RCP8.5 doesn't make much difference given high spread for historical period, but we agree this should be changed for a subsequent version of the Report

5	34	1	• There have been extensive published comments and responses on the approach used in Scaffeta (2023). Can these be reflected here? • G.A. Schmidt, G.S. Jones, and J.J. Kennedy, "Comment on "Advanced Testing of Low, Medium, and High ECS CMIP6 GCM Simulations Versus ERA5-T2m" by N. Scafetta (2022)", Geophysical Research Letters, vol. 50, 2023. http://dx.doi.org/10.1029/2022GL102530 • N. Scafetta, "Reply to "Comment on 'Advanced Testing of Low, Medium, and High ECS CMIP6 GCM Simulations Versus ERA5-T2m' by N. Scafetta (2022)" by Schmidt et al. (2023)", Geophysical Research Letters, vol. 50, 2023. http://dx.doi.org/10.1029/2023GL104960 • Z. Hausfather, K. Marvel, G.A. Schmidt, J.W. Nielsen-Gammon, and M. Zelinka, "Climate simulations: recognize the 'hot model' problem", Nature, vol. 605, pp. 26-29, 2022. http://dx.doi.org/10.1038/d41586-022-01192-2 • S. Jain, A.A. Scaife, T.G. Shepherd, C. Deser, N. Dunstone, G.A. Schmidt, K.E. Trenberth, and T. Turkington, "Importance of internal variability for climate model assessment", npj Climate and Atmospheric Science, vol. 6, 2023. [HYPERLINK "http://dx.doi.org/10.1038/s41612-023-00389-0"] The Schmidt et al paper is a comment on a different paper of Scaffeta's and focuses on his t-statistic, which isn't pertinent to the paper we cite (from Climate Dynamics). Regarding the Jain et al paper, Scaffeta uses ensemble ranges within each ECS type and doesn't simply rule models out but shows that some perform well for TAS. Relevance of the Hausfather et al paper is not clear.
5	34	4	• "Spencer (2024) has also provided a useful summary of the Model-Observation mismatch by comparing trends in surface temperature data products with those in individual climate models, as summarized in Figure 5.3; most climate models show substantially more warming than the observations since 1979." • It is worth noting that IPCC projected temperatures do not use all models and instead focus on those that best reproduce observations. So while some models may show warmer or cooler temperatures than observations, that does not imply that projections from large assessments reflect those biases. Our text speaks to the collection of CMIP6 climate models; some of those with the largest amount of warming are widely used models from
5	37	3	• "Hence, we assess with medium confidence that CMIP5 and CMIP6 models continue to overestimate observed warming in the upper tropical troposphere over the 1979–2014 period by at least 0.1°C per decade," • "Notably, despite the accumulation of evidence of excess model warming the IPCC assigns only medium confidence to the existence of a warming bias." • This reflects a more general issue with IPCC confidence statements where the inclusion of a quantification reduces the confidence they include. Here the full statement with the quantification of 0.1C per decade is assigned medium confidence whereas a statement about the existence of the bias without a specific quantification would receive higher confidence. Noted
5	39	Figure 5.7	• Does this update with data through 2024 use the same models that Christy and McNider (2017) used, or does it use updated versions for the models as well? This would be helpful to clarify here and in other places where figures are produced with updated data. Excellent catch. Fig. 5.7 uses CMIP-6 models, this should be stated in the caption as an update of Christy and McNider with CMIP6 output. Change made
5	39	3	• "The IPCC AR6 did not assess this issue." • Was this assessed in IPCC AR5? Many of the citations here could have been assessed then. Is there any more recent evidence on these issues that should be referenced here? IPCC has never addressed this issue with rigor, but does reluctantly notes the discrepancy. ↳ We don't think AR5 assessed the amplification discrepancy except maybe to dismiss it. But AR6 should have in any case.
5	40	1	• Are there more recent papers or data available? All the info here is AR6 or pre-AR6, but more recent years have shown more surface warming. It would be interesting to show stratospheric temperatures for these more recent years as well to see how this relationship holds. Santer et al. (2025) has been added.

5	40	5	• Trends in snow cover depend on both changes in precipitation and changes in temperature. It would be helpful if these were discussed separately rather than showing the net effect for one region/season. Context for statement is that the models get it wrong
6	47	1	• This chapter relies solely on observations and does not include other lines of evidence, it would be helpful to discuss what these other lines of evidence indicate to avoid introducing potential biases (e.g. what do process based lines of evidence show?) Yes we rely primarily on observations. We have added some text regarded process-based analyses, notably in the section on hurricanes
6	47	1	• The chapter summary does not fully capture the chapter or the science. Suggest talking about the extremes affected by climate, the extremes not affected by climate, and those where the data isn't sufficient to establish a trend. We think our summary is appropriate
6	47	3	• "Over geologic time the climate system has generated an (essentially) infinite variety of weather patterns and extremes..." • Just because an event occurred before humans does not mean humans are not influencing the frequency or intensity of such events now. Additionally, if something has happened in the geologic record, but humans have never experienced it before, they may not be prepared for such an event. OK, but that has nothing to do with CO2. Adaptation to extreme weather is a separate but important issue
6	50	Figure	• The figure heading has "@RyanMaue" in the title. Looks odd to have a social media handle in the figure. Is the source peer reviewed? We have added reference to an older publication by Maue that describes the analysis
6	52	4	• Insufficient data is different than no effects. It would be helpful to be clear in instances like this whether a conclusion is because the data supports it, or because there is insufficient data to say the opposite. This is covered in the last para of the section
6	53	Table	• Could you also show a similar table with hurricane precipitation? Not in this round. Very hard to get historical rainfall going very far back
6	53	5	• The last two paragraphs show findings from NCA4. With the interest in focusing on recent literature, what does NCA5 say about these issues? Does it not cover this issue, does it say the same thing, does it contradict this finding? NCA5 statements are discussed in the body of the text, see pp 57ff.
6	54	1	• The heading of section 6.3.1 is a bit misleading as this is partly driven by warmer winters and fewer cold days. For the CONUS, the heading is accurate as demonstrated with observational analyses
6	58	Figure	• Figure 6.3.5 shows the number of days greater than or equal to 95F in 6-year periods. Why show this in 6-year periods? That seems like an unusual choice. Would this look different with 5, 10, or 15 year periods? The time series is 126 years long, which is evenly divisible by 6. The point is to compress the depiction of interannual (i.e. natural) variability and examine slower changes. In our decimal system, 5 or 10 years is more commonly used, but with 126 years of data, we did not want to leave an "orphan" column (one with fewer years) compared with the entire time series. Explained in the Figure caption
6	58	4	• "We measure "Heatwave Days" here as the count of all days in May-Sep each year that exceed the 90th percentile for that day and that lie within a period of at least six consecutive days." • Why six consecutive days? Would this look different for 5 days, a week, 10 days? Six days seems like an unusual period to pick.

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			As noted in the text we use a metric defined in NCA4 for heat wave days. Regardless, whatever parametric choice is made (i.e. 5 days, 10 days, 85th percentile, etc.) the 1920s to early 1950s dominate the occurrence of heat wave days. Added: The pattern of results show below does not depend on the choice of reference period.)”
6	58	4	• The dependence on and subsequent choice of reference periods is worrying. Can multiple reference periods be shown to show the dependence? There will be no change in the fundamental result no matter which reference period is chosen. If the entire period-of-record is used to calculate percentiles, there will be fewer percentile exceedences than if a cold reference period is chosen (as was done in NCA4). However, the shape of the outcome will be the same.
6	59	3	• “The NCA5 directs readers to the website https://www.globalchange.gov/indicators/heat-waves (USGCRP 2023)” • Broken link. The link was live when the report was written, but the Reviewer is correct that it is now broken. Fortunately, we included the figure from that link to demonstrate the unusual start date (1961) and the fact that the sample contained only large cities.
6	61	3 to 6	• This reads as a very selective analysis. With a very tight time constraint and the fact our analysis required the construction of serially complete datasets, we selected regions that were called out by NCA5 and/or the IPCCAR6 as unusual. In future versions we shall have more regions to examine (e.g. upper Midwest, Central Plains, Texas Hill Country).
6	67	2	• Is this section suggesting that climate change is causing the decrease in tornadoes? No, this section doesn’t engage in attribution
6	68	7	• This is another place where it would be better to reference newer literature and NCA5 instead of relying on NCA4. What has changed since then? NCA5 mentions drought many times, but in anecdotal ways without metrics for testing. For example, NCA5 pg 1-23 states. <i>“Between 1980 and 2022, drought and related heatwaves caused approximately \$328 Billion in damages (in 2022 dollars). Recent droughts have strained surface water and groundwater supplies, reduced agricultural productivity, and lowered water levels in major reservoirs, threatening hydropower generation.”</i> This statement simply says that the demand for water was not met by the human-built systems which manage water supplies – there is no metric here that measures a change in the natural water supply. The statements on which we focus relate to whether the supply has been changing – a metric related to the climate system.
6	69	1	• Figure 6.7.1, is this the same indicator used in AR6? We have clarified the text to refer to meteorological drought. AR6 speaks mostly of “Agricultural and Ecological Droughts” which are defined in for various regions as <i>“Agricultural and ecological droughts are assessed based on observed and simulated changes in total column soil moisture, complemented by evidence on changes in surface soil moisture, water balance (precipitation minus evapotranspiration) and indices driven by precipitation and atmospheric evaporative demand”</i>, so we are unsure what specific metric is referenced.” Elsewhere it simply uses the term “drought” or “Meteorological and Hydrological Drought.” AR6 pg 1075 “A drought is a period of abnormally dry weather that persists for long enough to cause a serious hydrological imbalance (Glossary; Wilhite and Glantz, 1985; Wilhite, 2000; Cook et al., 2018). Most droughts begin as persistent precipitation deficits (‘meteorological drought’) that propagate over time into deficits in soil moisture,

			streamflow, and water storage (Figure 8.6), leading to a reduction in water supply ('hydrological drought'). Increased atmospheric evaporative demand increases plant water stress, leading to 'agricultural and ecological drought'. The best we can say is the AR6 used a different metric than shown in Fig. 6.7.1 that likely varied from region to region. However, Fig. 6.7.1 has high correspondence with drought-related impacts.
6	69	3	• "In summary there is no evidence of increasing drought frequency or intensity in the U.S. or globally over recent decades." • This statement is not supported by the citations presented here. AR6 finds that there are trends in agricultural and ecological droughts and this section does not contradict that finding, so this general statement about there being no evidence of increasing drought frequency or intensity is misleading. • AR6 SPM A.3.2 – "Human-induced climate change has contributed to increases in agricultural and ecological droughts in some regions due to increased land evapotranspiration (medium confidence)." Footnote, "Agricultural and ecological drought (depending on the affected biome): a period with abnormal soil moisture deficit, which results from combined shortage of precipitation and excess evapotranspiration, and during the growing season impinges on crop production or ecosystem function in general (see Annex VII: Glossary). Observed changes in meteorological droughts (precipitation deficits) and hydrological droughts (streamflow deficits) are distinct from those in agricultural and ecological droughts and are addressed in the underlying AR6 material (Chapter 11)." We have added "meteorological" to last sentence
6	69	4	• "The IPCC has not provided an assessment of wildfires." • AR6 WGII SPM discusses wildfire, and WG1 SPM discusses fire weather. • AR6 WGII SPM – B.1.1, B.1.4, Fig. SPM.2, Fig. SPM.3, B.5.2, B.6.2, C.2.3, C.4.2, D.4.2, • AR6 WGI SPM – C.2.4 Restated: The IPCC has not provided an attribution analysis of wildfires
7	75	1	• "The largest sea level increases along U.S. coasts are Galveston, New Orleans, and the Chesapeake Bay regions" • How much? Are there quantifications? The figures show this
8	83	3	• "AR5 Working Group II (Cramer et al., 2014) makes the following statement:" • What does AR6 say on this topic? The science on attribution has evolved since AR5. The AR6 did not make an analogous statement, but the challenges haven't been resolved
8	84	6	• "There are three areas of substantive criticism of the IPCC's assessment of the causes of the recent warming..." • Are there citations that can be included here or are these criticisms attributed to the authors? The section describes this adequately
8	84	6	• "IPCC's policy-informing..." • This phrasing is a bit odd. IPCC reports are policy relevant but policy neutral. This phrasing the direct policy in some way. Deleted policy-informing
8	90	3	• "For comparison, the IPCC estimate of forcing from the increase in atmospheric CO2 compared to preindustrial times is approximately 2.2 W/m2 (Figure 3.1.2)." • This is comparing different time periods. Figure 8.2 includes data for 2023 and 2024, IPCC wouldn't include the most recent years since it was published in 2021. Suggest updating from the IPCC data to Forster et al. (2024) that updates these indicators. • Forster et al. (2024) "Indicators of Global Climate Change 2024: annual update of key indicators of the state of the climate system and human influence" [HYPERLINK "https://doi.org/10.5194/essd-17-2641-2025"] Updated

8	92	2	• “It is not easy to justify a new positive low cloud feedback that began emerging in 2015.” • Explain why this is not easy? Added, “since there is no obvious feedback trigger starting in 2015”
8	93	4	• “Other columns of IPCC Table 12.12 report on whether anthropogenic signals are expected to emerge this century under RCP8.5, the most extreme forcing scenario. We have omitted these columns for several reasons.” • Can this be done for RCPs other than 8.5? The point of these omitted columns in IPCC Table 12.12 was to show that for some extremes we may not see an effect now, but will in the future. As it is presented here it implies future changes won’t matter. Agree 4.5 would have been better, but this is a query that should be directed to the IPCC
9	104	1	• IPCC AR6 WGII has an assessment of agriculture (both in the SPM and in Chapter 5), and the IPCC also has a special report on Climate Change and Land, that are more comprehensive, recent, and cover a larger range of the literature than discussed here. Please update this chapter to reflect these findings. Need a more specific point of challenge. Other reviewers have brought up specific topics that were either addressed by revisions or are already covered. I<u>We</u> think this is one area that goes under the heading of critiquing the mainstream, based on peer-reviewed literature.
10	110	4	• Section 10.1 rightly points out that technological advances have substantially reduced losses from extreme weather events. We are better at forecasting, preparing for, and adapting to extreme weather than we were in the past, and these advances all help reduce impacts. However, our ability to do this in the future depends upon preparing for future changes – we can’t simply assume adaptation will continue, we need to provide information on future risks and how those risks are impacted by climate change in order to inform continued technological advances and future adaptation. Noted
10	111	1	• “In May 2025 NOAA announced it has withdrawn the Billion Dollar Disaster product from publication (Pielke Jr., 2025).” • It would be better to cite an official government source from NOAA announcing this withdraw instead of a blog post commenting on it. Agreed, but this is the best information available from a well-published expert
10	111	2	• Losses from extreme weather and climate events are driven by climate risk (the physical events themselves), exposure to those risks (population and infrastructure impacted by these events), and adaptation to those events (technological advances in forecasting, warning systems, and resiliency). Understanding these risks requires disentangling these drivers in order to prepare for the future. Noted. Such a risk assessment is beyond the scope of this report
10	112	1	• There are additional citations that focus on the net effects of heat and cold related mortality that would be worth discussing and citing in this section. • EPA. 2024. Draft Technical Documentation for the Framework for Evaluating Damages and Impacts (FrEDI). U.S. Environmental Protection Agency, EPA 430-R-24-001. • Cromar et al., 2022. Global Health Impacts for Economic Models of Climate Change: A Systematic Review and Meta-Analysis. Ann. Am. Thorac. Soc. 19, 1203–1212. https://doi.org/10.1513/AnnalsATS.202110-1193OC • Hsiang et al., 2017. Estimating economic damage from climate change in the United States. Science 356, 1362–1369. • Mills et al., 2015. Climate change impacts on extreme temperature mortality in select metropolitan areas in the United States. Clim. Change 131, 83–95 The Cromar meta-analysis included only 7 studies for the US all published before 2015, and not all of them examined both hot and cold extremes. We think the citations we have, which includes the EPA, are adequate.
10	113	7	• Section 10.3.2 has good points about the importance of energy affordability and how energy poverty impacts adaptation behaviors. Cong et al. (2022) is another good citation for this section. • Cong, S., Nock, D., Qiu, Y.L. et al. Unveiling hidden energy poverty using the energy equity gap. Nat Commun 13, 2456 (2022). [HYPERLINK "https://doi.org/10.1038/s41467-022-30146-5"]

			Citation added
11	Chapter	Chapter	• Much of this chapter is focused on older literature on SCC and on applications that fall outside of how the USG has actually implemented SCC. This chapter would benefit from a more explicit focus on EPA (2023) as it represents the latest state of the literature on SCC, shows how the USG applies the SCC for regulatory impact analyses, shows how the USG updated the older IAG era SCC as represented in EPA (2016) in response to the recommendations in NAS (2017), shows how uncertainty is incorporated into SCC estimates, and discusses areas of the literature that are on the frontier, highly uncertain, and not ready to be incorporated into the official USG estimates. • As currently written much of this chapter is focused on these highly uncertain areas of the literature that are not incorporated into USG SCC estimates (e.g. tipping points, and climate change impacts on economic growth). EPA (2023) discusses these issues and why they are not ready to be incorporated into the official estimates. • Furthermore, EPA (2023) estimates of the SC-GHG does incorporate climate benefits such as CO2 fertilization and reductions in cold mortality discussed elsewhere in this report, and this should be noted and discussed. • Finally, this section ignores areas of real controversy in the calculation of SC-GHG as it is used by the USG – namely the question of global vs. domestic benefits and the treatment of discounting when valuing benefits to future generations. These controversial issues deserve far more attention in this report instead of spending so much space on issues on the fringe of the literature that are not even included in USG SC-GHG estimates. • EPA (2016) “Technical Support Document: Technical Update of the Social Cost of Carbon for Regulatory Impact Analysis Under Executive Order 12866 Interagency Working Group on Social Cost of Greenhouse Gases, United States Government.” https://www.epa.gov/sites/default/files/2016-12/documents/sc_co2_tsd_august_2016.pdf • EPA (2023) “Supplementary Material for the Regulatory Impact Analysis for the Final Rulemaking, ‘Standards of Performance for New, Reconstructed, and Modified Sources and Emissions Guidelines for Existing Sources: Oil and Natural Gas Sector Climate Review’ – EPA Report on the Social Cost of Greenhouse Gases: Estimates Incorporating Recent Scientific Advances.” Docket ID No. EPA-HQ-OAR-2021-0317. https://www.epa.gov/system/files/documents/2023-12/epa_scghg_2023_report_final.pdf • NAS (2017) “Valuing Climate Damages. Updating Estimation of the Social Cost of Carbon Dioxide” [HYPERLINK "https://nap.nationalacademies.org/catalog/24651/valuing-climate-damages-updating-estimation-of-the-social-cost-of"] The new discussion by the EPA simply rehashes <u>revisits</u> longstanding issues. Switching to separable models like Fair isn’t an advance, because everything still comes down to choice of <u>influential parameters</u> like ECS, discount rate, etc. They add some new damage components but as discussed they jumped on the M17 findings prematurely. Ch 11 focuses a lot on non-SCC topics like the relationship between temperature and growth because that’s been the focus of a lot of research. It’s not the case that this work is too new to be incorporated into SCC calculations. Moore and Diaz (cited) for example incorporated the Dell et al result into an SCC model. The problem is that the temperature signal in growth isn’t robust so economists aren’t convinced it belongs in the models. We don’t discuss the global vs local benefits issue mainly because standard SCC models have always assumed we should measure global effects and we are not offering an argument otherwise.

11	116-120	Section 11.1	• This chapter has a heavy focus on the relation between climate change and economic growth and how this relationship factors into the SCC. There is an ongoing debate in the literature about persistence in climate damages as measured by changes in economic growth over time; however, these persistence effects on economic growth are not considered in the most recent version of the SC-GHG used by the USG – EPA (2023). This chapter generally ignores the existence of EPA (2023), it is mentioned once in passing, and does not inform readers that these controversial areas of current research are not included in government estimates of the SC-GHG. • EPA (2023) page 58 says, “Given the statistical insignificance of the estimated coefficient on the productivity indicator in the published Howard and Sterner meta-analysis, the SC-GHG estimates presented in this report do not rely on Howard and Sterner’s specifications that include productivity effects. This is consistent with the authors’ recommendations in the published paper, to only consider the inclusion of the productivity impact in sensitivity analysis. However, the question of whether the effects of climate change impacts (e.g., temperature, tropical cyclones, and other extreme weather events) on the economy are only temporary or persistent is an active area of research. Over the past decade, a host of empirical studies have found evidence of temperature changes having persistent effects on the economy (e.g., Dell et al. 2012; Burke et al. 2015; Moore and Diaz 2015; Deryugina and Hsiang 2017; Ricke et al. 2018; Burke and Tanutama 2019; Colacito et al. 2019; Henseler and Schumacher 2019; Kahn et al. 2021; Kumar and Khanna 2019; Bastien-Olvera et al. 2022); this is an important finding because even small changes in economic growth rates accumulate into large economic impacts over time.” Some are discussed in Section 11.1.2 but McKittrick’s our review is more up to date.
11	116	1	• “Economists have long considered climate a relatively unimportant factor in economic growth, a view echoed by the IPCC itself in AR5.” • It would be good to update this to the relevant conclusions in AR6 to reflect the more recent literature. AR6 didn’t have an economics chapter comparable to AR5.
11	117	5	• This section makes an important point, much of the public does not understand that climate impacts are relative to projected future without climate change and need to be put in the context of economic growth and a future where our decedents are better off than we are today. O’Neill (2023) is a useful citation here, finding that, “Climate change research and assessments, including the most recent IPCC report, paint an increasingly dire picture of the future. However, the assumption that the future will be worse than the present may be wrong for many aspects of human well-being.” • O’Neill, B.C. Envisioning a future with climate change. Nat. Clim. Chang. 13, 874–876 (2023). [HYPERLINK"https://doi.org/10.1038/s41558-023-01784-4"] Citation added
11	119	3	• “Overall they could not detect a temperature effect on GDP or GDP growth, and they estimated the 95 percent confidence interval for the impact on global growth as of 2100 even under the exaggerated RCP8.5 warming scenario spans .86 percent to +388 percent. In other words the net effect is likely positive but too uncertain to distinguish from zero.” • This finding from Newell et al. (2021) needs to be contextualized with their complementary finding that models excluding growth effects and relating temperatures to GDP levels are far more certain. This is important to include since the actual USG application of SC-GHG does not include growth effects. • Newell et al. (20201) states, “Models relating temperature to GDP levels yield climate impact estimates that are far more certain. The best such models imply GDP losses by 2100 of 1–3%, consistent with damage functions currently embedded in the major integrated assessment models that underpin the U.S. social cost of carbon.” The discussion in this section is focused on the effect of dT on growth. The discussion of how dT affects the level of income is what 11.1.1 focuses on. It’s very regionally heterogenous so the small global average reported in Newell et al. isn’t very insightful.
11	119	6	• “To summarize, economists consider climate a relatively unimportant factor in economic growth, a view echoed by the IPCC itself in the Fifth Assessment Report.” • Need to update to reflect AR6 findings. See above

11	121		• “The concepts of estimation and uncertainty do not readily apply to SCC calculations.” • The discussion of uncertainty in IAMs should reflect EPA (2023) which incorporated many major advances in the treatment of uncertainty in integrated assessment modeling. See section A.8 of EPA (2023) for a summary of the quantified sources of uncertainty in the SCGHG estimates presented in EPA (2023) • EPA (2023) “Supplementary Material for the Regulatory Impact Analysis for the Final Rulemaking, ‘Standards of Performance for New, Reconstructed, and Modified Sources and Emissions Guidelines for Existing Sources: Oil and Natural Gas Sector Climate Review’ – EPA Report on the Social Cost of Greenhouse Gases: Estimates Incorporating Recent Scientific Advances.” Docket ID No. EPA-HQ-OAR-2021-0317. https://www.epa.gov/system/files/documents/2023-12/epa_scghg_2023_report_final.pdf Our point is that the key underlying parameters are uncertain, and the range of SCC estimates merely reflects those uncertainties. The fact that the EPA proposes ways to compute distributions of the SCC doesn’t affect this point, it follows from it.
11	121	3	• “Economists use IAMs to compute the SCC. Two of the best known are the Climate Framework for Uncertainty, Negotiation and Distribution (“FUND”, Tol 1997) and Nordhaus’ DICE.” • This is old literature. Given the advances since FUND and DICE were the leading SCC models, and this report’s focus on literature post-2020, this section should be updated to focus on the models used to calculate the SC-GHG in EPA (2023) which represents advances over the approach used in FUND and DICE in response to NAS (2017) recommendations. Added a mention of this. • EPA (2023) “Supplementary Material for the Regulatory Impact Analysis for the Final Rulemaking, ‘Standards of Performance for New, Reconstructed, and Modified Sources and Emissions Guidelines for Existing Sources: Oil and Natural Gas Sector Climate Review’ – EPA Report on the Social Cost of Greenhouse Gases: Estimates Incorporating Recent Scientific Advances.” Docket ID No. EPA-HQ-OAR-2021-0317. https://www.epa.gov/system/files/documents/2023-12/epa_scghg_2023_report_final.pdf
11	121	4	• “and a ‘judgmental adjustment’ of 0.5 percent for excluded impacts at 3°C warming” • EPA (2023) is the most up to date representation of the USG approach to SC-GHG incorporating the recommendations of the NAS (2017), and EPA (2023) explicitly does not included an adder for missing damages. This is another example of this chapter focusing on older less relevant literature, and it really should be comprehensively updated to address EPA (2023). Barrage and Nordhaus is a (2024) paper. We don’t endorse their approach, just describe it. But in some respects the EPA approach is already obsolete because the new Administration has abolished the SCC. • EPA (2023), page 59 states, “the model runs performed for this report do not adopt a 25% adder (as used in the DICE model (e.g., Nordhaus 2017)) to account for unknown or missing damages for the meta-analysis-based damage module.” • EPA (2023) “Supplementary Material for the Regulatory Impact Analysis for the Final Rulemaking, ‘Standards of Performance for New, Reconstructed, and Modified Sources and Emissions Guidelines for Existing Sources: Oil and Natural Gas Sector Climate Review’ – EPA Report on the Social Cost of Greenhouse Gases: Estimates Incorporating Recent Scientific Advances.” Docket ID No. EPA-HQ-OAR-2021-0317. • NAS (2017) “Valuing Climate Damages. Updating Estimation of the Social Cost of Carbon Dioxide” [HYPERLINK "https://nap.nationalacademies.org/catalog/24651/valuing-climate-damages-updating-estimation-of-the-social-cost-of"]

11	122	6	• “Abatement costs: IAMs represent the cost to the economy of reducing CO2 emissions. If CO2 emission reductions are assumed to be inexpensive, then the model will conclude that the optimal policy should aim for deeper emission cuts and vice versa.” • IAMs such as DICE are often used in a mode of calculating the optimal level of abatement where they do indeed compare the SCC with the marginal cost of abatement to find the optimum. However, these abatement costs are not part of the SCC calculation, and as used by the USG for the purpose of regulatory impact analyses, this feature of these IAMs is not used. Instead the USG has other more appropriate tools for analyzing the costs of specific regulations. This distinction is important here as the assumptions about the cost of emissions abatement does not have any bearing on the calculation of the SCC. The paragraph has been rewritten to clarify this.
11	122	7	• “For example, in 2023 the U.S. Environmental Protection Agency raised its preferred SCC value about 5-fold over the estimates it had issued ten years earlier. This is not because new data had been collected or better mathematical methods had been invented, but because new assumptions had been used, and the validity of those assumptions was a separate question.” • This paragraph contains the only reference to EPA (2023). First, the characterization of this update as only because new assumptions are used is factually incorrect. EPA (2023) represents a significant change to how the USG calculated the SC-GHG moving away from the FUND/DICE/PAGE models used in the IWG era (see EPA (2016)) to a modular approach as recommended by NAS (2017). This chapter needs to address the NAS (2017) recommendations and the EPA (2023) response to those recommendations to capture how SC-GHG was actually used by the USG and how the literature has evolved over time. The tabulations in EPA 2023 p. 81 show that if they had not changed the Ag productivity assumption and added a large mortality cost they’d have ended up with SCC numbers very close to the 2013 IWG numbers. Assuming very low discount rates did the rest. Using the Fair model with the DSCIM and GIVE damage modules wasn’t the key change, it was the changed assumptions about damage drivers and discounting. • EPA (2016) “Technical Support Document: Technical Update of the Social Cost of Carbon for Regulatory Impact Analysis Under Executive Order 12866 Interagency Working Group on Social Cost of Greenhouse Gases, United States Government.” https://www.epa.gov/sites/default/files/2016-12/documents/sc_co2_tsd_august_2016.pdf • EPA (2023) “Supplementary Material for the Regulatory Impact Analysis for the Final Rulemaking, ‘Standards of Performance for New, Reconstructed, and Modified Sources and Emissions Guidelines for Existing Sources: Oil and Natural Gas Sector Climate Review’ – EPA Report on the Social Cost of Greenhouse Gases: Estimates Incorporating Recent Scientific Advances.” Docket ID No. EPA-HQ-OAR-2021-0317. https://www.epa.gov/system/files/documents/2023-12/epa_scghg_2023_report_final.pdf § NAS (2017) “Valuing Climate Damages. Updating Estimation of the Social Cost of Carbon Dioxide” [HYPERLINK]
11	123	2	• “It should also be noted that the SCC is focused on the social costs of CO2 emissions from fossil fuel use. It does not measure the private marginal benefits to consumers and society from the availability of fossil fuels. Public willingness to pay for fuels of all types indicates the value to society of reliable, abundant fossil energy.” • Two points to make about this section. First, the benefits to society generally accrue from the provision of energy services, not from specific fuels.” A distinction without a difference in this context. Second, the private marginal benefit of the availability of fossil fuels or energy services is not part of the SCC because changes in the cost and provision of the energy services should be part of the other side of the cost benefit analysis. The SCC is used to characterize the benefits of GHG emissions abatement, and the changes in the costs and availability of energy services are part of the cost of emissions abatement. Agreed, changed the wording to clarify
11	125	5	• “the uncertainty of SCC estimates doesn’t mean that other regulatory measures are inherently better or more efficient.” • ‘regulatory measures’ is a poor word choice here as it can be confused with the regulation itself instead of the metric used to assess the regulation.

			Changed measures to instruments
11	123-125	Section 11.1	• Section 11.2.4 has an interesting discussion of tipping points. This is an active area of research in the field, however it needs to be noted that tipping points or tipping elements are not included in the SC-GHG as used by the USG, see EPA (2023). • EPA (2023), page 3 says, “For example, the modeling in this report omits most of the consequences of changes in precipitation, damages from extreme weather events, the potential for nongradual damages from passing critical thresholds (e.g., tipping elements) in natural or socioeconomic systems, and nonclimate mediated effects of GHG emissions other than CO2 fertilization (e.g., ocean acidification due to CO2 emissions, tropospheric ozone formation due to CH4 emissions). Importantly, this update does not yet reflect interaction effects and feedback effects within, and across, natural and human systems. For example, it does not explicitly reflect potential interactions among damage categories, such as those stemming from the interdependencies of energy, water, and land use. These interactions and feedbacks, and others, were highlighted by the National Academies as an important area of future research for longer-term enhancements in the SC-GHG estimation framework.” Not necessary to say this since EPA is on hold from doing SCC calculations
12	129	1	• This chapter summary is misleading as it is describing change from today’s temperature rather than the effect on future temperatures. A change from today’s temperature is the future temperature. Not sure what the objection is.
12	129	2	• “And even if global emissions were to stop tomorrow, it would take decades or centuries to see a meaningful reduction in the global CO2 concentration and hence human influences on the climate.” • If global emissions were to go to zero tomorrow, CO2 concentrations would stabilize, and global temperature would be approximately constant. Net negative CO2 would result in reductions of concentrations and temperatures. In other words, while reducing global CO2 emissions to zero might not lead to near-term reductions in CO2 concentrations from today’s levels, it would stop future increases in CO2 concentrations. Consistent with what we stated.
12	129	3	• This section is focused on unilateral action, but needs to address questions related to collective action and individual actions by multiple parties when the benefits of abatement and the damages from emissions have extensive externalities. • Kotchen (2021) provides a theoretical perspective on the global vs. domestic SCC question and addresses questions related to how an individual country’s decisions are impacted by the expected choices of other countries given that GHG emissions are globally mixed the benefits of GHG abatement are shared widely. • Kotchen (2021). Which Social Cost of Carbon? A Theoretical Perspective. Journal of the Association of Environmental and Resource Economists. [HYPERLINK "https://doi.org/10.1086/697241"] An interesting line of thought but we can’t get into game theoretic models here.
12	129	4	• “Since that rate has been averaging about 50 percent of emissions in recent decades, a reduction of global emissions by 50 percent would (at least temporarily) halt the rise in atmospheric CO2.” • This may be addressed in earlier chapters that this reviewer has not read yet, but the standard framing is that stabilizing CO2 concentrations requires balancing emissions by sources and removals by sinks. Removals by sinks includes both natural sequestration and anthropogenic sequestration (e.g. afforestation if it can be done that increases the overall land sink removal, or direct air capture). It could be useful to clarify this here. The discussion is only an approximation for illustrative purposes

12	129	5	• “Lomborg (2016) estimated that full compliance with the Paris Accord would not stop warming, it would only prevent about 0.1C warming and delay hitting the baseline year 2100 temperature levels by about a decade.” • Note that the Lomborg (2016) finding is related to, “the of impact of the total, global emission cuts implied by all the submitted INDCs,” this is different than ‘full compliance with the Paris Accord’ as the INDCs analyzed in the paper are only the first round of Intended Nationally Determined Contributions submitted ahead of COP-21, and the Paris Accord requires additional Nationally Determined Contributions every 5 years. Since Lomborg (2016) only analyzes these INDCs, and parties have submitted two rounds of NDCs since then, suggest changing the wording here to, “... full compliance with initial commitments submitted ahead of the Paris Accord.” Changed to reflect this.~
12	129	Chapter	• [NOTE: this comment is long and could be difficult to read in excel. It is included here once as a full comment, then again broken into multiple parts for ease of reading. This is PART 1] • Section 12.1 is titled, “The scale of the problem,” is framed around contrasting criteria air contaminants with CO2 emissions; however, there really are three separate issues that need to be disentangled: Stock vs. Flow. • The challenge here is that abatement costs borne by people today benefit people in the future –temporal externalities. • CO2 emissions are a stock pollutant, so impacts depend on the cumulative emissions to date, whereas traditional criteria are a flow pollutant and impacts depend on the emissions at that point in time. Emissions of a stock pollutant going to zero will not affect impacts at that point in time, as the stock remains unchanged, but will have large impacts in the future as the stock will cease to increase until emissions resume; whereas emissions of a flow pollutant going to zero will immediately eliminate impacts, but impacts will have no lasting effects on future impacts as they will immediately resume when emissions resume. • The sentence at the end of the second paragraph of this section reads, “And even if global emissions were to stop tomorrow, it would take decades or centuries to see a meaningful reduction in the global CO2 concentration and hence human influences on the climate.” This is conflating the expectations of how stock and flow pollutants work – if global emissions were to stop tomorrow, the fact that there would be no meaningful reduction in global CO2 concentrations is simply the nature of how stock pollutants work, but there would be very large impacts on future temperatures since the stock would cease to increase. Conflating isn’t the right word. We are pointing out the stock-flow issue. • The stock nature of CO2 emissions is a real challenge for justifying CO2 emissions reductions, but it is centered on justifying the costs of abatement being born by people today in order to create a stream of benefits that grow over time and primarily accrue to future generations. This leads to questions important questions about how decision-makers should think about inter-generational discounting, and what costs should or should not be borne today for the benefit of future generations that will potentially be substantially better off. Dealt with in the IAMs section • It’s worth noting that since CH4 emissions are relatively short lived, they behave much more like a flow pollutant than a stock pollutant. If CH4 emissions went to zero, concentrations would fall relatively quickly, and the temperature effects would happen on a much shorter timescale, but if CH4 emissions fully resumed, concentrations would return to previous levels there would be no lasting impact of the previous reductions. This is to point out that the stock vs. flow distinction also happens between different greenhouse gasses and is not purely a distinction between GHG emission and criteria pollutants. The CH4 case is interesting and we haven’t looked at it. Also natural sources and sinks are complicated for CH4

12	129	Chapter	• [NOTE: this comment is long and could be difficult to read in excel. It is included here once as a full comment, then again broken into multiple parts for ease of reading. This is PART 2] Globally mixed. • The challenge here is that abatement costs borne by people in one location benefit people in other locations – spatial externalities. • The next issue is that GHG emissions are globally mixed, so that emissions in any one location have impacts all over the world. This is a distinct issue from the stock vs. flow issue, as the CH4 example above showed a flow pollutant can also be globally mixed. One can also consider a stock pollutant that is not globally mixed, such as groundwater pollution that depends on the stock of contaminants accumulating in the groundwater not just the flow in any one time period as one would see in surface water pollution. • The globally mixed nature of GHG emissions is a real problem for justifying climate policy as the benefits of any one country’s actions primarily accrue to people in other countries. Conversely, a country benefits from the actions of every other country, not just their own actions. This is a problem of game theory and collective action, as unilateral action may not be justified even if collective action would be. It’s worth noting that this isn’t just a problem of scale – these same problems arise for globally mixed CH4 emissions even though as noted above they behave more as a flow pollutant, and would arise for any globally mixed pollutant regardless of the scale of the problem. There is an extensive literature on transboundary pollution that explores these issues. Agree with all this, but discussing these points wouldn’t change our overall conclusions
12	129	Chapter	• [NOTE: this comment is long and could be difficult to read in excel. It is included here once as a full comment, then again broken into multiple parts for ease of reading. This is PART 3] Scale. • The challenge here is that solving the problem requires enormous change and potentially enormous costs. However, individual actions need to be considered at the margin. • As discussed in this section and the comments above, stabilizing CO2 concentrations and stopping the increase in global mean temperature requires balancing anthropogenic emissions and removals by sinks. The level global mean temperature stabilizes at would generally depend on the cumulative CO2 emissions up to the point CO2 emissions on net go to zero (the stock of CO2 emissions), and the level of short-lived non-CO2 emissions at that time (the flow of non-CO2 emissions). This would involve an enormous change to the global energy system. The costs of this change would be highly dependent on the timing of reaching net-zero CO2 emissions – in 10 years by 2035 would involve crippling costs to the global economy, in 100 years by 2125 would involve a far more gradual transition and likely impose minimal costs when discounted back to today. • What is missing in this chapter is an acknowledgement that policy needs to be thought of at the margin. Do the marginal benefits of the policy equal or exceed the marginal costs? This is how economists think of these problems and the essence of how the government conducts cost-benefit analysis to inform decision-makers under E.O. 12866. The case study presented in section 12.2 poses the wrong two question. Showing that a policy’s emissions reductions are small relative to global emissions, and the resulting impact on global temperatures is also small is tautological. No individual policy will solve climate change, but that does not mean that the individual policy is not justified. The relevant questions for decision makers are: (1) what is the cost of the marginal ton of emissions reductions by this policy? and (2) are those marginal costs smaller than the marginal benefit of a ton of emissions reductions? In practice, question (2) is very difficult to answer, and requires judgements about how to value benefits to Americans vs. benefits to the rest of the world, how to discount benefits that accrue to future generations, and how to consider the impacts U.S. actions have on the likelihood that other countries will take actions that benefit the U.S. These are difficult questions that need to be answered to justify climate policy, and this section would be improved by acknowledging that these are the questions that need to be addressed instead of the awkward argument that the problem is big, and individual policies are small therefore they can’t be justified. Ch 12 is only focused on the scale problem. The reviewer is correct that even if the effects are small that doesn’t mean they shouldn’t be undertaken. Ch 11 is where the logic of cost-benefit analysis including marginal considerations is explored.

12	129	Chap ter	• [NOTE: this comment is long and could be difficult to read in excel. It is included here once as a full comment, then again broken into multiple parts for ease of reading. This is the full comment] • Section 12.1 is titled, “The scale of the problem,” is framed around contrasting criteria air contaminants with CO2 emissions; however, there really are three separate issues that need to be disentangled: § Stock vs. Flow. • The challenge here is that abatement costs borne by people today benefit people in the future – temporal externalities. • CO2 emissions are a stock pollutant, so impacts depend on the cumulative emissions to date, whereas traditional criteria are a flow pollutant and impacts depend on the emissions at that point in time. Emissions of a stock pollutant going to zero will not affect impacts at that point in time, as the stock remains unchanged, but will have large impacts in the future as the stock will cease to increase until emissions resume; whereas emissions of a flow pollutant going to zero will immediately eliminate impacts, but impacts will have no lasting effects on future impacts as they will immediately resume when emissions resume. • The sentence at the end of the second paragraph of this section reads, “And even if global emissions were to stop tomorrow, it would take decades or centuries to see a meaningful reduction in the global CO2 concentration and hence human influences on the climate.” This is conflating the expectations of how stock and flow pollutants work – if global emissions were to stop tomorrow, the fact that there would be no meaningful reduction in global CO2 concentrations is simply the nature of how stock pollutants work, but there would be very large impacts on future temperatures since the stock would cease to increase. • The stock nature of CO2 emissions is a real challenge for justifying CO2 emissions reductions, but it is centered on justifying the costs of abatement being born by people today in order to create a stream of benefits that grow over time and primarily accrue to future generations. This leads to questions important questions about how decision-makers should think about inter-generational discounting, and what costs should or should not be borne today for the benefit of future generations that will potentially be substantially better off. • It’s worth noting that since CH4 emissions are relatively short lived, they behave much more like a flow pollutant than a stock pollutant. If CH4 emissions went to zero, concentrations would fall relatively quickly, and the temperature effects would happen on a much shorter timescale, but if CH4 emissions fully resumed, concentrations would return to previous levels there would be no lasting impact of the previous reductions. This is to point out that the stock vs. flow distinction also happens between different greenhouse gasses and is not purely a distinction between GHG emission and criteria pollutants. § Globally mixed. • The challenge here is that abatement costs borne by people in one location benefit people in other locations – spatial externalities. • The next issue is that GHG emissions are globally mixed, so that emissions in any one location have impacts all over the world. This is a distinct issue from the stock vs. flow issue, as the CH4 example above showed a flow pollutant can also be globally mixed. One can also consider a stock pollutant that is not globally mixed, such as groundwater pollution that depends on the stock of contaminants accumulating in the groundwater not just the flow in any one time period as one would see in surface water pollution. • The globally mixed nature of GHG emissions is a real problem for justifying climate policy as the benefits of any one country’s actions primarily accrue to people in other countries. Conversely, a country benefits from the actions of every other country, not just their own actions. This is a problem of game theory and collective action, as unilateral action may not be justified even if collective action would be. It’s worth noting that this isn’t just a problem of scale – these same problems arise for globally mixed CH4 emissions even though as noted above they behave more as a flow pollutant, and would arise for any globally mixed pollutant regardless of the scale of the problem. There is an extensive literature on transboundary pollution that explores these issues. § Scale. • The challenge here is that solving the problem requires enormous change and potentially enormous costs. However, individual actions need to be considered at the margin. • As discussed in this section and the comments above, stabilizing CO2 concentrations and stopping the increase in global mean temperature requires balancing
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		anthropogenic emissions and removals by sinks. The level global mean temperature stabilizes at would generally depend on the cumulative CO2 emissions up to the point CO2 emissions on net go to zero (the stock of CO2 emissions), and the level of short-lived non-CO2 emissions at that time (the flow of non-CO2 emissions). This would involve an enormous change to the global energy system. The costs of this change would be highly dependent on the timing of reaching net-zero CO2 emissions – in 10 years by 2035 would involve crippling costs to the global economy, in 100 years by 2125 would involve a far more gradual transition and likely impose minimal costs when discounted back to today. • What is missing in this chapter is an acknowledgement that policy needs to be thought of at the margin. Do the marginal benefits of the policy equal or exceed the marginal costs? This is how economists think of these problems and the essence of how the government conducts cost-benefit analysis to inform decision-makers under E.O. 12866. The case study presented in section 12.2 poses the wrong two question. Showing that a policy’s emissions reductions are small relative to global emissions, and the resulting impact on global temperatures is also small is tautological. No individual policy will solve climate change, but that does not mean that the individual policy is not justified. The relevant questions for decision makers are: (1) what is the cost of the marginal ton of emissions reductions by this policy? and (2) are those marginal costs smaller than the marginal benefit of a ton of emissions reductions? In practice, question (2) is very difficult to answer, and requires judgements about how to value benefits to Americans vs. benefits to the rest of the world, how to discount benefits that accrue to future generations, and how to consider the impacts U.S. actions have on the likelihood that other countries will take actions that benefit the U.S. These are difficult questions that need to be answered to justify climate policy, and this section would be improved by acknowledging that these are the questions that need to be addressed instead of the awkward argument that the problem is big, and individual policies are small therefore they can’t be justified.
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Pg	Par a	Comment or Suggested Edit	
viii	2	The greening effect can't be due to increase in CO2 alone. The fertilization effect needs Nitrogen and phosphorous. There is observational[1] evidence that nitrogen available to plants is decreasing with increasing CO2 and thus acting to limit fertilization effect. Secondly, the greening of some portions of the planet are likely due to changes in precipitation patterns associated with changing climatic conditions and not entirely attributable to fertilization effect. We will also need to consider that the temperature effect on photosynthesis will also be a limiting mechanism to any continued greening due to fertilization in the future [2]. I recommend acknowledging that the greening is not attributable to CO2 alone and continued greening in the future with increasing CO2 is uncertain. Changed sentence to "Elevated concentrations of CO₂ directly enhance plant growth, globally contributing to "greening" the planet"	[1] Rachel E. Mason et al. Evidence, causes, and consequences of declining nitrogen availability in terrestrial ecosystems. Science 376, eaah3767 (2022) DOI:10.1126/science.aah3767 [2] C.E. Moore, et al. The effect of increasing temperature on crop photosynthesis: from enzymes to ecosystems. Exp. Bot., 72 (8) (2021), pp. 2822-2844
viii	3	I am glad we acknowledge that CO2 causes warming, though I am not sure why we are not considering other energy sector related emissions that also cause warming (CFCs/HFCs, methane, aerosol effects). It is not clear what is meant by "CO2 emissions have tended to overestimate observed trends". This is not correct, the cumulative emissions track the RCP8.5 scenario the closest [3,4]. While there was a decrease in emissions during the Covid-19 period the emissions are now back on track following RCP8.5. This statement should clarify what is meant by the statement in the text. Rewrote sentence in the summary section to read "Climate change simulations require scenarios of distant future emissions. There is evidence that scenarios widely-used in the impacts literature have overstated observed and likely future emission trends." On page 16 text added "Schwalm et al. (2020) defended the use of RCP8.5 on the grounds that cumulative CO2 emissions over 2005-2020 track it more closely than the lower RCP scenarios. They also argue that a modified version of the IEA scenarios closely track RCP8.5 in the coming decades. Hausfather and Peters (2020b) responded that the skill of RCP8.5 over those 15 years is due to offsetting errors in its representation of CO2 from fuel use and land use change, and the apparent agreement with IEA in coming decades is due to Schwalm et al. adding in very high land use emissions. The IEA's own projected CO2 emissions track well below RCP8.5."	[3] C.R. Schwalm, S. Glendon, & P.B. Duffy, RCP8.5 tracks cumulative CO2 emissions, Proc. Natl. Acad. Sci. U.S.A. 117 (33) 19656-19657, https://doi.org/10.1073/pnas.2007117117 (2020). [4] C.R. Schwalm, S. Glendon, & P.B. Duffy, Reply to Hausfather and Peters: RCP8.5 is neither problematic nor misleading, Proc. Natl. Acad. Sci. U.S.A. 117 (45) 27793-27794, https://doi.org/10.1073/pnas.2018008117 (2020).

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viii	4	This paragraph seems to be talking about equilibrium climate sensitivity. The most recent model inter-comparison gives a wider range of climate sensitivities in the range of 1.8 to 5.7 and is wider than estimates of climate sensitivities that have been estimated from paleoclimatic and more recent historical datasets, in the range could be in the range of 2.3 to 4.5 K[5]. The higher sensitivity in the most recent model assessments are an area of active investigation by modelers, the feasibility of a higher range needs to be confirmed with additional observational and process scale modeling [6]. The range for climate sensitivities, 1.8-2.7, should be corrected to the most recent findings, 2.3-4.5. We should also recognize that the (a)earth is a complex system of systems (b)we can't do an experiment to find out what is correct or reduced the uncertainty. As we get better at extracting temperature records and CO2 concentrations from paleo data, there will be better reconstructions and possibly narrower range along with improvements in modeling that resolve many physical, biological and chemical processes as we get to higher and cloud resolving spatial resolutions. We discuss Sherwood et al. in Ch 4. Sentence changed: "Data-driven methods yield a lower and narrower range."	[5] Sherwood, S.C., Webb, M. J., Annan, J.D., Armour, K.C., Forster, P. M., Hargreaves, J.C., et al. (2020). An assessment of Earth's climate sensitivity using multiple lines of evidence. <i>Reviews of Geophysics</i>, 58, e2019RG000678. https://doi.org/10.1029/2019RG000678 [6] Zelinka, M. D., Myers, T. A., McCoy, D. T., Po-Chedley, S., Caldwell, P. M., Cecchi, P., et al. (2020). Causes of higher climate sensitivity in CMIP6 models. <i>Geophysical Research Letters</i>, 47, e2019GL085782. https://doi.org/10.1029/2019GL085782
viii	5	This is again not true for the majority of the models in the AR6. Figure 7.19 in the IPCCAR6 report shows that majority of the models exhibit a range within the observational range. The models running hot in the most recent decades are the ones with climate sensitivities greater than 5K, which are 3 out of a total of 40 and it should be noted that about the same number of models also are running cold' compared to observed[7] Paragraph has been rewritten: The world's several dozen global climate models offer little guidance on how much the climate responds to elevated CO2, with the average surface warming under a doubling of the CO2-concentration ranging from 1.8°C to 5.7°C [Section 4.2]. Data-driven methods yield a lower and narrower range [Section 4.3]. Global climate models generally run "hot" in their description of the climate of the past few decades—too much warming at the surface and too much amplification of warming in the lower- and mid-troposphere [Sections 5.2-5.4]. The combination of overly sensitive models and implausible extreme scenarios for future emissions yields exaggerated projections of future warming.	[7] Hausfather, Z., Drake, H. F., Abbott, T., & Schmidt, G. A. (2020). Evaluating the performance of past climate model projections. <i>Geophysical Research Letters</i>, 47, e2019GL085378. https://doi.org/10.1029/2019GL085378
viii	5,6, 7	There is very little dispute that these are challenging issues for climate science. Many of the issues identified here related to compound effects (subsidence and sea-level rise; wildfire and forest management) that requires further scientific investigation. Identifying further research avenues/focus areas will be helpful to firm up some of the challenges faced in using the climate projections as discussed in the paragraph 9. There is no disagreement here.	

viii	9	The focus on uncertainty is relevant and should be emphasized in future research. However, as a reasonable policy pathways, making decisions in the face of these uncertainties is critical. Most of the climate uncertainties that we have confidence at this time can be considered Level 2 and Level 3 uncertainties, approaches such as scenario analysis (and others) are suggested and followed for making hazard and risk estimates for future conditions. For deep uncertainty hazards (for example tornadoes etc.) that we don't have enough data or capability to model, developing methods for assessing the uncertainty and risk should be a focus of future research. There is no disagreement here. See Curry's book Climate Uncertainty and Risk.	
2	3	The reason CO2 was identified as a pollutant is the health consequences of increased temperature, flooding and other climate impacts and not because of any direct affect on health due to exposure to atmospheric CO2[8]. There is no disagreement here.	[8] https://www.cdc.gov/climate-health/php/effects/index.html
3	1/C hapter summary	The summary should note that CO2 fertilization effects are limited by the availability of other critical plant nutrients (Nitrogen, Phosphorous). The fertilization effect is also constrained by higher temperature effecting photosynthesis[9] Added sentence: Other contributing factors included warming and increased nitrogen.	[9] Xinyuan Wei et al 2025 Environ. Res. Lett. 20 064013
3	3	The attribution of greening to primarily CO2 fertilization is questionable as per recent research. Specifically, in the Northern high latitudes (where the greening is most prominent), increases in temperatures due to climate change has been shown to provide the best explanation[10]. In the sub-Saharan region reforestation efforts and changing precipitation patterns lead to some of the observed greening (the great green wall) [11]. The attribution to CO2 fertilization should be qualified by noting the other present and emerging constraints. We cite Zhu et al attributing 70% of change to <u>CO2</u>, <u>CO2</u>-. That implies other factors matter as well.	[10] Liu, J., Wennberg, P.O. An emergent constraint on the thermal sensitivity of photosynthesis and greenness in the high latitude northern forests. Sci Rep 14, 6189 (2024). https://doi.org/10.1038/s41598-024-56362-1 [11] Francesco S.R. Pausata, Marco Gaetani, Gabriele Missouri, Alexis Berg, Danielle Maia de Souza, Rowan F. Sage, Peter B. deMenocal, The Greening of the Sahara: Past Changes and Future Implications, One Earth, Volume 2, Issue 3, 2020, Pages 235-250, ISSN 2590-3322, https://doi.org/10.1016/j.oneear.2020.03.002.
3	5	This summarization ignores the compound effects of temperature, moisture and CO2 fertilization in assessing the impacts of CO2 increase on vegetation and crop yields. Many studies have shown that [12]. Making note of these compensating factors is required for a balanced view on CO2 fertilization effects on plants. This issue is addressed in Chapter 9	[12] Lesk, C., Anderson, W., Rigden, A. et al. Compound heat and moisture extreme impacts on global crop yields under climate change. Nat Rev Earth Environ 3, 872–889 (2022). https://doi.org/10.1038/s43017-022-00368-8

4	1	Chen et al. (2024)[13] conclude that "In the attribution analysis of LAI trend and growth rate trend, there were some differences between multiple linear regression model and partial correlation analysis at high latitudes in the northern hemisphere. Partial correlation analysis showed that LAI trend and growth rate trend in this region were mainly affected by temperature and radiation, while multiple linear regression suggested that CO2 was the dominant driver. The results of the partial correlation analysis seem more reasonable because some previous studies have shown that vegetation change in the high latitudes of the northern Hemisphere is mainly positively affected by climate warming. Multiple linear regression model performed relatively poorly in this region and might not fully identify the contribution of individual drivers. In addition, our model does not include the contribution of land management, which has been highlighted in some previous studies. Of course, the contribution of land management to LAI trend and growth rate trend may be implied in other drivers, such as the positive contribution of CO2 to LAI trend in PP and PN areas". We have added the Chen references. Our existing summary doesn't conflict with this. They conclude CO2 is the dominant driver globally but not the only driver.	[13]Xin Chen, Tiexi Chen, Bin He, Shuci Liu, Shengjie Zhou, Tingting Shi, The global greening continues despite increased drought stress since 2000, <i>Global Ecology and Conservation</i>, Volume 49, 2024, e02791, ISSN 2351-9894,
6	1	This again suffers from not acknowledging the effects of compound and often compensating phenomena that is occurring with the ongoing climate change. For example [14] note that much of the Midwest any benefit from CO2 fertilization will be negated by temperature increases. [15] note that "Our results show that long-term physiological acclimation dampens the initial stimulation of plant net carbon assimilation to elevated [CO2], and of plant water use to warming." The topic of agricultural productivity is addressed in Chapter 9 It is not disputed that effects of dT go negative at high enough levels. The 2013 paper by Ruiz-Vera et al doesn't provide much general information beyond the FACE experiment site. The C14 data set used is a global sample and takes both dT and dC into account.	[14] Ursula M. Ruiz-Vera, Matthew Siebers, Sharon B. Gray, David W. Drag, David M. Rosenthal, Bruce A. Kimball, Donald R. Ort, Carl J. Bernacchi, Global Warming Can Negate the Expected CO2 Stimulation in Photosynthesis and Productivity for Soybean Grown in the Midwestern United States, <i>Plant Physiology</i>, Volume 162, Issue 1, May 2013, Pages 410–423, https://doi.org/10.1104/pp.112.2.11938 [15] Lamba S, Hall M, Rantfors M, et al. Physiological acclimation dampens initial effects of elevated temperature and atmospheric CO2 concentration in mature boreal Norway spruce. <i>Plant Cell Environ.</i> 2018; 41: 300–313. https://doi.org/10.1111/pce.13079
8	1	The fallacy of these arguments in terms of PH changes and evolution is that the changes described in this paragraph occurred over millennia and the evolutionary process had time to adapt; here with climate change we are talking about changes in our lifetime, the speed of change is the issue. This will lead to collapse of some ecosystem and by the time adaptation takes place it will be millions of years and in a different climate - not the one we have now and that enabled the rise of humans. The chapter notes large regional and even diurnal variations in ocean pH. We already address the issue of short timescale variations on p. 8: "On the time scale of thousands of years, boron isotope proxy measurements show that ocean pH was around 7.4 or 7.5 during the last glaciation (up to about 20,000 years ago) increasing to present-day values as the world warmed during deglaciation (Rae <i>et al.</i>, 2018). Thus, ocean biota appear to be resilient to natural long-term changes in ocean pH since marine organisms were exposed to wide ranges in pH."	

5	Fig 2.2	A simple calculation will show us how misleading this figure is. It shows that over 600 Million years CO2 changed by around 6000ppm. That is a rate of change of 0.00001/yr; CO2 changed from 275 to 430 in the past 175 years, that is rate of change of 0.88ppm/yr. A change in the rate of over 10^5 in magnitude - there in lies the problem. We are seeing a rapid increase in CO2 that has never been witnessed and the ecosystem and human society (which is at best 10K years old), may not be able to adapt to this rapid change. This figure has been deleted. We don't know what the rate of changes was on an annual or centennial time scale since the data are too low resolution. We have added the following sentence: "While the modern rate of change in CO2 is likely high compared to prior intervals, the geological evidence is that plants and animals evolved under much higher CO2 levels than at present."	
12	Summary	The misuse of RCP8.5 as business as usual is acknowledged. However, this was never intended to be a no-policy or business as usual scenario but as a high-end baseline scenario. When dealing with interaction of physical systems with socio-economic projections (which tend to be highly uncertain and policy dependent), the development of this high baseline scenarios is intended to explore the uncertainty ranges that represent a high-end scenario[16,17]. As any engineer would acknowledge, this is a prudent approach when dealing with L3 and L4 type deep uncertainties and provide valid envelopes for assessing uncertainties and risks from high impact events/hazards. The rest of the statements here are uncertainties acknowledged by the climate scientists and included in developing projections and discussing the results[4]. Does the IPCC downplay the role of sun in climate change? The IPCC includes sun variability in all its assessments from the beginning and has been acknowledged as a potential but insignificant contributor. The comments do not imply any disagreement with what we have written. Extreme scenarios for models are useful for bracketing outcomes but our criticism (based on the literature) is the widespread use of RCP as a no-policy baseline; the reviewer acknowledges that was never its purpose. The IPCC's assessment insignificance of the sun in climate change is based in part on use of low variability irradiance reconstructions that rule out it having any role. This is addressed in Chapter 8	[16] van Vuuren, D.P., Edmonds, J., Kainuma, M. et al. The representative concentration pathways: an overview. Climatic Change 109, 5 (2011). https://doi.org/10.1007/s10584-011-0148-z [17] Hausfather, Z. (2025). An assessment of current policy scenarios over the 21st century and the reduced plausibility of high-emissions pathways. Dialogues on Climate Change, 2(1), 26-32. https://doi.org/10.1177/29768659241304854 (Original work published 2025)
16	2,3, 4,5	Please see above. The business-as-usual may be a misnomer but this is an 95% case that is typically included in any type of prudent uncertainty analysis, in particular given the difficulty of predicting the evolution of socio-economic and political conditions over the next 100 years. It should be noted the difference between RCP8.5 and RCP4.5 for mid-century conditions that is of particular focus for adaptation studies is not significant and most of the divergence in these two scenarios occurs later in the century. Implausibility is not equivalent to very unlikely (e.g. 95% percentile), but rather includes impossible or implausible assumptions. High impact hazards occur independent of atmospheric CO2 concentrations (Chapter 6).	

19	5	That the dynamic vegetation models need more development is acknowledged and is a defining challenge for Earth System Modeling for the next decade. There is no disagreement here	
22	3	As noted, Parker[18,19,20] has investigated the Urban effects on temperature records. The finding establish that by comparing warm and wind conditions world wide that the impact is negligible. However, as noted by authors, this literature hasn't progressed much over the last decade and much more attention needs to be paid to this question by employing newer models, datasets and analytical techniques available to us at present. The CWG Report addresses this concern. We agree with the reviewer that the literature stalled a decade+ ago.	[18] Parker, D. Large-scale warming is not urban. Nature 432, 290 (2004). https://doi.org/10.1038/432290a [19] Parker, D.E. (2010), Urban heat island effects on estimates of observed climate change. WIREs Clim Change, 1: 123-133. https://doi.org/10.1002/wcc.21. [20] Parker, D. E., 2006: A Demonstration That Large-Scale Warming Is Not Urban. J. Climate, 19, 2882–2895, https://doi.org/10.1175/JCLI3730.1.
28	2	We can all agree that there is a desperate need for developing higher-resolution climate models that can get to cloud resolving scale so that we can represent the cloud feedbacks correctly in the model and avoid uncertainties from parameterization and scale dependency of the parameters. This doesn't make these models useless. The models provide directions for further improvements and necessary changes to reduce the uncertainty bands over the ECS. The climate models are useful for research purposes. The CWG Report demonstrates that they are not fit for the purpose of policy making. There's no guarantee increased resolution will be the answer, but if ever a model appears that can deal correctly with clouds that will be quite something. •	

29	2	The databased approaches have mostly been robust with changes at the high end around 3-4C and at the low end around 1.8 to 2.5C as noted in the chapter. It will be challenging to make this range shorter given the data requirements and uncertainties in data over paleo/haloacene periods. It seems reasonable to estimate that we may have ECS in the range of 3 to 4K (higher than 3.5K being less likely [21]) at the higher end and this should not prevent us from planning and thinking on ways to prevent this possible scenario as it could have major consequences for humans across the planet. The Report acknowledges that 4C is a reasonable upper bound for the likely range	[21] Michael Mann, Our Fragile Moment: How lessons from Earth's past can help us survive climate crisis, Hachette Group Inc., 2024.
32	3	The models range over a factor of three in ECS comparing the most sensitive to the least sensitive models. However vast majority of the models are in 3 to 3.5K sensitivity range and it is probably not correct to assign all models the same amount of importance, given the fact that some of institutes participating in the exercise have different levels of capacity to develop and test models. Only 5 of the models are between 3 and 3.5C. Some of the most reputable models have the highest values of ECS, including UK and US models The point made in this paragraph is that research over several decades has not reduced the range of model ECS. For observers who rely on model outputs this is very concerning and again goes to the question of fitness for purpose, as posed in the prior paragraph.	
34	1	While this analysis for the CMIP6 model set is accurate and focuses on a dataset that has shown higher ECS than previous iterations, it should be noted the models have exhibited considerable skill in predicting the subsequent GMST warming[22]. The criticism of the CMIP6 based high ECS models may be premature and probably will have to wait additional time before passing judgement. As noted in [22] these models have shown considerable skill when evaluated on their projections over the past 30-40 years after the projections were published. Figure 5.3 in the Report clearly refutes this assertion Hausfather et al. did examine early model-obs matches but only using models that had relatively low ECS. The Scaffeta analysis covered a longer interval (1980-2021) than the Hausfather et al. analysis of SAR (1995-2017) and TAR (2001-2017). Its findings line up with Fig 5.3 and the tropospheric evidence in Fig 5.4.	[22] Hausfather, Z., Drake, H.F., Abbott, T., & Schmidt, G.A. (2020). Evaluating the performance of past climate model projections. Geophysical Research Letters, 47, e2019GL085378. https://doi.org/10.1029/2019GL085378
36	1	A recent study attributes the bias to inter-annual availability and residual bias in the satellite record. The pre- and post 2000 have temperature records from two separate satellites and the discrepancy in the trends needs to be resolved[23] Chung et al. (using output through 2014 only) confirm the models' too-high warming rates and suggested two issues that might contribute to at least part of the discrepancy: (1) the differential phasing of natural, ephemeral events such as El Niños between models and observations and (2) a possible spurious cooling in UAH and NOAA/STAR satellite datasets around 2000. Regarding (1) we agree that the timing of major events like ENSOs diminishes the fidelity of models-to-observations comparisons for short periods, but now with 46 years of record as well as two major El Niño warm events since 2014 in the observations, the results shown in Fig. 5.7 are quite appropriate for comparison. Regarding (2) Christy et al. 2018 (and later Zou et al 2023) specifically examined the divergence around 2000 between UAH and NOAA/STAR vs. RSS and UW demonstrating that RSS and UW's use of the aging and drifting NOAA-14 satellite relative to the new, highly calibrated NOAA-15 sensor contributed to a spurious warming in RSS and UW. Be that as it may, CWG Fig. 5.7 is clear in noting all models overestimate the tropical temperature trend relative to observations – model trends being even more positive than those of RSS and the two Reanalyses (in addition to UAH and NOAA/STAR).	[23] Chung, ES., Kim, SJ., Sohn, BJ. et al. Multi-decadal climate variability and satellite biases have amplified model-observation discrepancies in tropical troposphere warming estimates. Commun Earth Environ 5, 342 (2024). https://doi.org/10.1038/s43247-024-01510-8

38	3	This is challenge we need to face and work on improving the parametrizations. The new era of super high resolution models would resolve the complex interactions of turbulence, transport and clouds and will provide less uncertainty[24]. However, this can't be used to invalidate the entire set of models, the models are performing remarkably well given the complex system that is being modeled. It should be noted the models do cover the range of the observations and it is not outside the envelope of model predictions. The Report does not address invalidating the entire set of models. Rather we address the fitness-for-purpose of the models for policy making. Fig 5.6 shows that to the extent there is a match with observations, it comes from models with very little CO2 response. “However, this can't be used to invalidate the entire set of models, the models are performing remarkably well given the complex system that is being modeled.” This statement is not supported by the evidence unless and until “remarkably well” is metricized for us to examine and make a determination. The paper cited doesn't exactly apply to the real world (looking at Fig 1. doesn't give one much confidence in models), but does give insight into the various models as best we can tell.	[24]Merlis, T. M., Guendelman, I., Cheng, K.-Y., Harris, L., Chen, Y.-T., Bretherton, C. S., et al. (2024). The vertical structure of tropical temperature change in global storm-resolving model simulations of climate change. Geophysical Research Letters, 51, e2024GL111549. https://doi.org/10.1029/2024GL111549
40	4	Part of the problem here may be which part of the stratosphere is sampled and the importance of interannual a variabilities in the lower part of the stratosphere. [25] have shown that including the stratosphere as defined from 25 to 50km there is high confidence that the cooling signal caused by CO2 increase is detectable and beyond the noise levels of the natural and inter annual variability in the lowest part of the stratosphere. We should put this debate to rest. Santer et al. (2023 has been added to the references with this text: Santer et al. (2023) use updated data to show that a cooling trend has not re-emerged in the lower stratosphere.	[25] B.D. Santer, S. Po-Chedley, L. Zhao, C. Zou, Q. Fu, S. Solomon, D.W.J. Thompson, C. Mears, & K.E. Taylor, Exceptional stratospheric contribution to human fingerprints on atmospheric temperature, Proc. Natl. Acad. Sci. U.S.A. 120 (20) e2300758120, https://doi.org/10.1073/pnas.2300758120 (2023).
42	2	Given the large uncertainties in obtaining data over much of the Northern Hemisphere, using a smaller regional analysis to discount the models may be inappropriate. We should that this remains a question we need to resolve developing better datasets with more seasonal and sub-seasonal coverage to test the model on a global scale The reviewer's points are fine but it is important in the context of this report to point out discrepancies in the way models on some key continental-scale metrics such as, in this case, snow cover. This section directly addresses a region that is important to estimates of the Social Cost of Carbon in the context of agricultural productivity, again reiterating that the models are not fit for the purpose of policy making.	

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44	3	This statement from [26] refers to the fitness of global scale models to resolve regional scale features and argues for developing model at higher spatial resolutions. Using downscaling and other techniques additional insights can be gained at regional scales and provide information for a set of 'purposes'. However, we should work on getting to regional and local scales with GCM as quickly as possible. <u>The current model structural forms may not be adequate for resolving all of these issues merely by increasing spatial resolution. Simulating change at regional to local scales depends on getting the internal variability of the ocean correct, which is only partly a resolution issue.</u>	
47	2	Looking for trends or estimating trends in extreme events in current and future climate is not necessarily an attribution study. Estimating frequency, duration and intensity of events helps understand the changing range of the hazard (if there is one). An attribution would be to find to what extent a particular event is influenced or affected by increase in CO2. I would consider these two not to be the same. We explain the distinction between detection and attribution	
47	3	Attributing any single event to changing climate is perilous, agreed. Yes. +	
47	5	As noted by [26] there is not yet any strong evidence that LPT <i>[sic]</i> is a fact We have eliminated mention of LPT explicitly, but retain elements of the text surrounding long term variability.	[26]Cohn, T. A., and H. F. Lins (2005), Nature's style: Naturally trendy, Geophysics: Res. Lett., 32, L23402, doi:10.1029/2005GL024476.
57	2	I am not sure how one can conclude that the temperature extremes have decreased based on figure 6.3.4. If I understand correctly the Tmax-Tmin for each year was tabulated and a mean of this difference averaged over the 100+ years was subtracted from these values to get some thing like a anomaly. This anomaly seems to have moved from +3F to -3F over the course of 900 years and now trending upwards again. This suggests to me that there has been significant changes in the extremes over the years and the most recent trend is towards warmer highs? <u>Figure 6.3.3 clearly shows cold extremes have decreased on a centennial scale while warm extremes haven't changed much.</u> <u>In Figure 6.3.4, for each station and each year, the hottest day and coldest night are determined and their difference computed. These differences are then geographically averaged for the CONUS and then an overall average is removed to show the results as a type of anomaly. Reviewer 1 is correct, as indicated in the text, Tmin temperatures are almost universally rising more rapidly than Tmax, hence, the difference (or range) has declined overall. A check of CMIP6 models for the CONUS under ssp4.5 shows half with Tmax rising faster than Tmin and (obviously) half vice versa – so there is no clear signal from models that matches the observations.</u> For each station and each year, the hottest day and coldest night are determined and their difference computed. These differences are then geographically averaged for the CONUS and then an overall average is removed to show the results as a type of anomaly. Reviewer	

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		1 is correct, as indicated in the text, Tmin temperatures are almost universally rising more rapidly than Tmax, hence, the difference (or range) has declined overall. A check of CMIP6 models for the CONUS under ssp4.5 shows half with Tmax rising faster than Tmin and (obviously) half vice versa — so there is no clear signal from models that matches the observations. The flattening (or slight rise in the metric) in the past 20 years is clearly within the natural range, but does reveal an interesting stair-step pattern with rapid declines centered around the 1940's and 1990's and relatively flat periods in between. An explanation is under investigation, and a leading hypothesis is that there was rapid growth of manufactured surfaces around weather stations in the 1940s. Then, in the 1960s-80s many stations were re-located to relatively rural airports, which then experienced subsequent growth in manufactured surfaces around their weather stations in the 1990s. Thus, rapid nighttime warming in the 1940s and 1990s.	
58	3	The NCA5 is suggesting that the western US is experiencing increase in extreme heat (page 57, para 4); it seems like figure 6.3.5 establishes the fact and not contradict. There was no claim of pervasive (all CONUS) increase in the report We have deleted the sentence "The NCA5 heading "The Risk of Temperature Extremes is Changing" suggests pervasive positive trends are now being observed in threshold temperatures, but that is not evident in the figures above." Not <u>It isn't</u> worth going into more detail in this report	
59	4	The definition of heat wave as consecutive 6 days seems to be a special case. The standard definition is exceedance of 85 or 90 percentile for 2 or more days. I can't check with NCA5 as it was taken down from the web As correctly suggested by Reviewer 1, there are numerous ways to define a heat wave. CWG chose to follow one definition discussed in NCA4 (pg 191) and use 6 consecutive days with Tmax > 90th percentile so as to allow for consistent comparisons. However, changing the parameters will do little to alter the fundamental result that the 1920's to early 1950's contain the major heat wave events for the CONUS.	
60	1,2	Figure 6.3.6 establishes that heatwaves as defined here have increased in the west and have shown increasing trend all over CONUS in the past 50 years. [27] shows the results for the last 60 years and there is little doubt that there is an increase over most of the CONUS, again the NCA5 report is off the web; figure 6.3.7 shows the heat waves are monotonically increasing from the 1960. Including the longer data is only interesting in the dust bowl 1930 ca mouflage the signal somewhat for the Midwest and central plains. The problem of taking averages over large regions (for example entire CONUS) is that it kills the peak signals and smooths out the emergent climate change indicators. Doing continental averages to look for extremes is really not very useful. Secondly, there is no particular reason to assume that the climate change signal (i.e. the number of heat waves) should showing up 100 years ago, as the CO2 in the atmosphere started to be of significance in the last 50 years. As discussed in the CWG text, the EPA chart is (1) based on nighttime temperatures in the 50 largest US cities and (2) begins in 1961 which was the start of the coolest decade in over 100 years, thereby preconditioning the chart to have an upward trend. Urbanization is	[27] https://www.epa.gov/climate-indicators/climate-change-indicators-heat-waves

		most clearly seen in nighttime temperature increases so this does not represent a change in the background climate, but more likely the local climates of cities. Rural areas show less nighttime warming. And, avoiding earlier warm periods does not provide information on the larger scale of natural variability. We have added a sentence at the end of Section 6.3 “Irrespective of the ultimate cause of regional trends, heatwaves have important effects on society which must be addressed, as we discuss in Chapter 10.”	
61	4	averaged over all stations in the region, none of these trend parameters is statistically significant’. This is again how one would be looking at statistics of extremes in precipitation. As we know, precipitation is highly heterogeneous and location dependent. As observed there are trends even with the approaches chosen by the authors of this study compared to NCA5 and averaging that over and saying there is no trend seems disingenuous. We summarize the site-specific trends as well as the regional average. The rationale for looking at the regional average is that a GHG signal should cover a wide area.	
62	2	same argument as above We summarize the site-specific trends as well as the regional average. The rationale for looking at the regional average is that a GHG signal should cover a wide area.	
63	box	again the issue here is that we are talking about events that are happening in a short-time and over a small region. Averaging over time and space and develop statistics is probably not appropriate when we are talking about events such as the recent flooding event in Texas. If you average that event over 30 days, it will seem unremarkable. Extreme event totals are 1-day to 5-days depending on section discussed. The point being made in the Box is that if you use a too-short record you may underestimate natural variability. I’m <u>We’re</u> not sure how the reviewer’s comment challenges this.	
64	1	As noted in NCA5 and shown in the analysis presented in figure 6.4.4 there is a clear trend of increase in extreme precipitation in 12 of the 27 stations analyzed. Again averaging over the entire region is not the best method for picking extreme precipitation events that are local both in time and space. We summarize the site-specific trends as well as the regional average. The rationale for looking at the regional average is that a GHG signal should cover a wide area. Also in this case we point out that the NE behaves differently than other regions.	

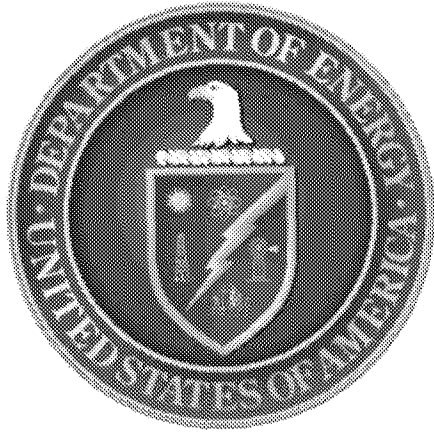
69	2	However, there is evidence that flash droughts, which last weeks have increased over the Northeast and Midwest [28] The paper referenced by Reviewer 1 begins with data so recent (1999) that it cannot provide evidence for long-term changes in drought as evidenced in the US Drought Monitor (DM) even though it suggests an increase in "flash droughts" over that period. Keep in mind, the DM is a product of subjective interpretation and objective measures - objective measures that have changed considerably during the past 25 years – thus is not metrically consistent. (One of the CWG authors was an official contributor to the DM for 15 years.) One would wonder what would the 1920's, 30's and early 50's reveal if the DM was operational back then? A more consistent metric is provided in CWG Fig. 6.7.1.	[28] Ronald D. Leeper, Rocky Bilotta, Bryan Petersen, Crystal J. Stiles, Richard Heim, Brian Fuchs, Olivier P. Prat, Michael Palecki, Steve Ansari
70	2	More recent analysis indicate forest loss due to wildfire accelerating over the recent past[29]. In particular there has been an increase in extreme fire radiative power with a 2 fold increase from 2003 to 2023 (period of satellite data availability)[30][31]. However, that these fires are not out-of-sample and there is a fire deficit as shown in figure 6.8.2 should be acknowledged. But this doesn't alleviate the concern that wildfire is leading to lot of socio-economic concerns and needs to be addressed[32] New sentence added: However, there is evidence that the intensity of fires in some regions is worsening (Cunningham et al. 2024) and that wildfires resulted in a net loss of global forest cover over 2001-2019 (Tyukavina et al. 2022).	[29] Tyukavina Alexandra, Potapov Peter, Hansen Matthew C., Pickens Amy H., Stehman Stephen V., Turubanova Svetlana, Parker Diana, Zalles Viviana, Lima André, Kommareddy Indrani, Song Xiao-Peng, Wang Lei, Harris Nancy; Global Trends of Forest Loss Due to Fire From 2001 to 2019, Frontiers in Remote Sensing, Volume 3 – 2022, 2022. [30] Cunningham, C.X., Williamson, G.J. & Bowman, D.M.J.S. Increasing frequency and intensity of the most extreme wildfires on Earth. Nat Ecol Evol 8, 1420–1425 (2024). https://doi.org/10.1038/s41559-024-02452-2 [31] Patrick H. Freeborn, W. Matt Jolly, Mark A. Cochrane, Gareth Roberts, Large wildfire driven increases in nighttime fire activity observed across CONUS from 2003–2020, Remote Sensing of Environment, Volume 268, 2022, 12777 [32] Parks, S.A., Guiterman, C.H., Margolis, E.Q. et al. A fire deficit persists across diverse North American forests despite recent increases in area burned. Nat Commun 16, 1493 (2025). https://doi.org/10.1038/s41467-025-56333-8
71	3	The question of forest management and its role on wildfire frequency and intensity is interesting and deserves further study. We agree	
80	1	The global mean sea-level was increasing at a rate of 0.08 inches/yr in 1993 compared 0.18 inches/yr in 2023, almost double the rate[33], which is approximately what is needed to meet the NOAA projections by mid-century and seems plausible. We discuss the NOAA projection for a specific site in the context of high-quality, long-term tide gauge data, but offer no comment on its plausibility. Extrapolating satellite-derived accelerations post 1993 is a perilous business given the well-documented variability of GMSL rates on multi-decadal scales. We don't judge it to be implausible	[33] Hamlington, B.D., Bellas-Manley, A., Willis, J.K. et al. The rate of global sea level rise doubled during the past three decades. Commun Earth Environ 5, 601 (2024). https://doi.org/10.1038/s43247-024-01761-5

88	3	A possible reason the method used by IPCC (optimal fingerprinting) can be considered to address McKinnick criticism is in [34] We have added citation to Chen et al. They mostly just reiterate my <u>the same points as McKinnick (2022)</u>. They propose a resolution to one part of the problem but it requires very restrictive assumptions.	[34] Chen, H., Chen, S.X. & Mu, M. A statistical review on the optimal fingerprinting approach in climate change studies. Clim Dyn 62, 1439–1446 (2024). https://doi.org/10.1007/s00382-023-06975-5
92	4	The role of clouds remains the single most uncertainty in climate modeling, I am glad this was acknowledged here. Agreed	
93	3	The substance of this paragraph was addressed in my comments in earlier sections. Some of the claims made here are either exaggerations of the usual practice (RCP8.5 being referred to as BAU) or the comment about not fit for purpose (a comment extracted from a publication that is calling out for cloud resolved models. Presumably the reviewer agrees RCP8.5 should not be used as a BAU scenario, so we are in agreement. The Palmer and Stevens paper nonetheless says the models are not currently fit for purpose, <u>an observation echoed by the Nissan et al paper cited.</u>	
105	2,3,4,5	The problem with both the FACE studies and the soybean, Maize and wheat studies cited here are that they don't consider the effect of increase in temperature, changes in precipitation, humidity and other environmental factors along with CO2 increases. These compound effects have been shown in wide number of studies [35] [36][37][38][39]. A meta analysis of the compound effects shows that increase in CO2, along with temperature, precipitation changes effects the quality of the cereal and yields[40]. Another recent study evaluated the impacts on C3 and C4 crops and conclude that CO2 enrichment for C3 crops could increase but will be compensated by temperature increase. CO2 fertilization effect was found to be small for C4 [41]. It is important therefore that we consider the compound effects on crop yields and not just focus on CO2 enrichment. The reviewer is correct that compound effects need to be considered, and indeed one of the problems with a lot of econometric papers on climate change and agriculture is they only look at heat and ignore the CO2 enrichment (Taylor and Schlenker being an important exception). Since our remit was impacts of CO2 emissions a brief discussion of FACE plot experiments and other CO2-only experiments is on topic. We discuss meta-analysis of multivariate (compound) experiments in Section 9.3.	[35] Ruiz-Vera UM, Siebers M, Gray SB, Drag DW, Rosenthal DM, Kimball BA, Ort DR, Bernacchi CJ. Global warming can negate the expected CO2 stimulation in photosynthesis and productivity for soybean grown in the Midwestern United States. Plant Physiol. 2013 May;162(1):410-23 [36] Levine LH, Richards JT, Wheeler RM. Super-elevated CO2 interferes with stomatal response to ABA and night closure in soybean (Glycine max). J Plant Physiol. 2009 Jun 1;166(9):903-13. [37] Večeřová K, Oravec M, Puranik S, Findurová H, Veselá B, Opoku E, Ofori-Amanfo KK, Klem K, Urban O, Sahu PP. Single and interactive effects of variables associated with climate change on wheat metabolome. Front Plant Sci. 2022 Oct 10;13:1002561. [38] Thomas, J.M.G., Boote, K.J., Allen, L.H., Gallo-Meagher, M. and Davis, J.M. (2003), Elevated Temperature and Carbon Dioxide Effects on Soybean Seed Composition and Transcript Abundance. Crop Sci., 43: 1548-1557. https://doi.org/10.2135/cropsci2003.1548 [39] Lesk, C., Anderson, W., Rigden, A. et al. Compound heat and moisture extreme impacts on global crop yields under climate change. Nat Rev Earth Environ 3, 872–889 (2022). https://doi.org/10.1038/s43017-022-00368-8 [40] Ben Mariem S, Soba D, Zhou B, Loladze I, Morales F, Aranjuelo I. Climate Change, Crop Yields, and Grain Quality of C3 Cereals: A Meta-Analysis of [CO2], Temperature, and Drought Effects. Plants. 2021; 10(6):1052. https://doi.org/10.3390/plants10061052 [41] Rezaei, E.E., Webber, H., Asseng, S. et al. Climate change impacts on crop yields. Nat Rev Earth Environ 4, 831–846 (2023). https://doi.org/10.1038/s43017-023-00491-0

106	1	Taylor and Schlenker 2021 also note that 'Climate change will likely have negative impact on agriculture in aggregate, especially in regions exposed to extreme heat. And the CO2-driven yield increases may be offset by effects on food nutrition and quality'. However, the results for US have been a net positive in the recent past but not true in the lower latitudes. Extreme heat may be a net negative, but thus far the overall effects have been positive. Regarding nutrition loss see Section 9.4	
111	1,2	The criticism of NOAA Billion dollar map is likely warranted as it was never completely transparent how the data was generated. However, changing the baseline assumption and refactoring the data using a different set of criteria to make the effects smaller also doesn't make sense. We should continue collecting this data and make the data accessible for researchers and peer review. Figure 10.1 doesn't address these issues, it is another methodology with unknown provenance of the data. We agree that data collection, dissemination and transparency are key. Fig 10.1 is traceable as an indicator though we don't regard it as the final word on the subject either. .	
117	3	Climate change can be expected to increase cold weather extremes in regions that have not been exposed to these effects Not sure what the reviewer's point is. The reviewer's point is unclear.	
118	3	The same Nobel prize winning model in its most recent study concludes that [42] "We conclude with three results relevant for climate policy. First, both current policies (base run) and the extended Paris Accord fall short of limiting global warming to 2 °C or to the cost-benefit optimal level. Second, the economic stakes in global climate policy are substantial, with estimated net present value of economic benefits around \$120 trillion from the cost-benefit optimal policy. Third, once differences in discounting are considered, the baseline DICE-2023 estimate of the social cost of carbon (\$66/tCO2 for 2020) aligns closely with other recent estimates". Obviously this is the latest and the current version of the model and these results are quite different from thus discussed on this page. These conclusions should also be included in this discussion to avoid selective reading of the literature. We discuss Barrage and Nordhaus (2024) on p. 121.	[42] L. Barrage, & W. Nordhaus, Policies, projections, and the social cost of carbon: Results from the DICE-2023 model, Proc. Natl. Acad. Sci. U.S.A. 121 (13) e2312030121, https://doi.org/10.1073/pnas.2312030121 (2024).

120	1	Similar empirical studies [43] point to "Using an empirical approach that provides a robust lower bound on the persistence of impacts on economic growth, we find that the world economy is committed to an income reduction of 19% within the next 26 years independent of future emission choices (relative to a baseline without climate impacts, likely range of 11–29% accounting for physical climate and empirical uncertainty). These damages already outweigh the mitigation costs required to limit global warming to 2°C by sixfold over this near-term time frame and thereafter diverge strongly dependent on emission choices. Committed damages arise predominantly through changes in average temperature, but accounting for further climatic components raises estimates by approximately 50% and leads to stronger regional heterogeneity. Committed losses are projected for all regions except those at very high latitudes, at which reductions in temperature variability bring benefits. The largest losses are committed at lower latitudes in regions with lower cumulative historical emissions and lower present-day income". This study uses more of the daily temperature precipitation from 1600 hundred locations world wide instead of global means. There are numerous studies that show the cost, many described in the COP 21 and follow-on meetings The Kotz et al. paper is subject to a cautionary notice at the Nature website that "the reliability of data and methodology presented in this manuscript is currently in question." [HYPERLINK "https://www.nature.com/articles/s41586-024-07219-0"] The literature showing growth effects of temperature increase is pretty robust. And though we don't cite it, there is a new paper just accepted at Climate Change Economics by McKeltrick and Devina Lakhtakia adding to the evidence using 2 newly-constructed global data bases.	[43] Kotz, M., Levermann, A. & Wenz, L. The economic commitment of climate change. Nature 628, 551–557 (2024). https://doi.org/10.1038/s41586-024-07219-0
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A Critical Review of Impacts of Greenhouse Gas Emissions on the U.S. Climate

Climate Working Group
United States Department of Energy
July 15, 2025

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Impacts of Carbon Dioxide Emissions on the U.S. Climate

Report to U.S. Energy Secretary Christopher Wright
July 15, 2025

Climate Working Group:

John Christy, Ph.D.

Judith Curry, Ph.D.

Steven Koonin, Ph.D.

Ross McKittrick, Ph.D.

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Climate Working Group (2025) Impacts of Carbon Dioxide Emissions on the U.S. Climate. Washington
DC: Department of Energy, July 15, 2025

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Table of Contents

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SECRETARY'S FOREWORD

Energy, Integrity, and the Power of Human Potential

Over my lifetime, I've had the privilege of working as an energy entrepreneur across a range of fields—nuclear, geothermal, natural gas, and more—and I now serve as Secretary of Energy under President Donald Trump. But above all, I'm a physical scientist who sees modern energy as nothing short of miraculous. It powers every aspect of modern life, drives every industry, and has made America an energy powerhouse with the ability to fuel global progress.

The rise of human flourishing over the past two centuries is a story worth celebrating. Yet we are told—relentlessly—that the very energy systems that enabled this progress now pose an existential threat. Hydrocarbon-based fuels, the argument goes, must be rapidly abandoned or else we risk planetary ruin.

That view demands scrutiny. That's why I commissioned this report: to encourage a more thoughtful and science-based conversation about climate change and energy. With my technical background, I've reviewed reports from the Intergovernmental Panel on Climate Change, the U.S. government's assessments, and the academic literature. I've also engaged with many climate scientists, including the authors of this report.

What I've found is that media coverage often distorts the science. Many people—even well-meaning ones—walk away with a view of climate change that is exaggerated or incomplete. To provide clarity, I asked a diverse team of independent experts to summarize the current state of climate science, with a focus on how it relates to the United States.

I didn't select these authors because we always agree—far from it. In fact, they may not always agree with each other. But I chose them for their rigor, honesty, and willingness to elevate the debate. I exerted no control over their conclusions. What you'll read are their words, drawn from the best available data and scientific assessments.

I've reviewed the report carefully and challenged its findings. I believe it faithfully represents the state of climate science today. Still, many readers may be surprised by its conclusions—which differ in important ways from the mainstream narrative. That's a sign of how far the public conversation has drifted from the science itself.

To correct course, we need open, respectful, and informed debate. That's why I'm inviting public comment on this report. Honest scrutiny and scientific transparency should be at the heart of our policymaking.

Climate change is real, and it deserves attention. But it is not the greatest threat facing humanity. That distinction belongs to global energy poverty. As someone who values data, I know that improving the human condition depends on expanding access to reliable, affordable energy. Climate change is a challenge—not a catastrophe. But misguided policies based on fear rather than facts could truly endanger human well-being.

We stand at the threshold of a new era of energy leadership. If we empower innovation rather than restrain it, America can lead the world in providing cleaner, more abundant energy—lifting billions out of poverty, strengthening our economy, and improving our environment along the way.

EXECUTIVE SUMMARY

This report reviews scientific certainties and uncertainties in how anthropogenic carbon dioxide (CO₂) and other greenhouse gas emissions have affected, or will affect, the Nation's climate, extreme weather events, and selected metrics of societal well-being. Those emissions are increasing the concentration of CO₂ in the atmosphere through a complex and variable carbon cycle, where some portion of the additional CO₂ persists in the atmosphere for centuries.

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Elevated concentrations of CO₂ directly enhance plant growth, globally contributing to “greening” the planet and increasing agricultural productivity. They also make the oceans less alkaline (lower the pH) by an amount within the range of natural variability. That is possibly detrimental to coral reefs, although the recent rebound of the Great Barrier Reef suggests otherwise.

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Carbon dioxide also acts as a greenhouse gas, exerting a warming influence on climate and weather. Climate change simulations require scenarios of future emissions. There is evidence that scenarios widely used in the impacts literature have overstated observed and likely future emission trends.

The world's several dozen detailed global climate models offer little guidance on how much the climate responds to elevated CO₂, with the average surface warming under a doubling of the CO₂ concentration ranging from 1.8°C to 5.7°C. Data-driven methods yield a lower and narrower range, a larger range than data-driven estimates that suggest a response in the range 1.8°C to 2.7°C. COMBINE PARA Detailed

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Global climate models generally run “hot” in their description of the climate of the past few decades – too much warming at the surface and too much amplification of warming in the lower- and mid-troposphere. They also produce too much stratospheric cooling, and too much warming in the U.S. Cor Belt. The combination of overly sensitive models and implausible extreme scenarios for future emissions yields exaggerated projections of future warming.

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Most extreme weather events in the U.S. do not show long-term trends. Claims of increased frequency or intensity of hurricanes, tornadoes, floods, and droughts are not supported by U.S. historical data. Additionally, forest management practices are often overlooked in assessing changes in wildfire activity. Global sea level has risen approximately 8 inches since 1900, but there are significant regional variations in tide gauge data, driven primarily by local land subsidence; U.S. tide gauge measurements in aggregate show no obvious acceleration in sea level rise beyond the historical average rate.

The attribution of particular climate changes or extreme weather events to human CO₂ emissions is challenged by natural climate variability, data limitations, and inherent model deficiencies. Moreover, solar activity's contribution to the late 20th century warming might be underestimated.

Both models and experience suggest that CO₂-induced warming might be less damaging economically than commonly believed, and excessively aggressive mitigation policies could prove more detrimental than beneficial. Social Cost of Carbon estimates, which attempt to quantify the economic damage of CO₂ emissions, are highly sensitive to their underlying assumptions and so provide limited independent information.

The report supports a more nuanced and evidence-based approach for informing climate policy that explicitly acknowledges uncertainties. The risks and benefits of a climate changing under both natural and human influence must be weighed against the costs, efficacy, and collateral impacts of any climate action, considering the nation's need for reliable and affordable energy with minimal local pollution. Beyond continuing precise, un-interrupted observation of the global climate system, it will be important to make realistic assumptions about future emissions, re-evaluate climate models to address biases and uncertainties, and clearly acknowledge the limitations of extreme event attribution studies. An approach

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that acknowledges both the potential risks and benefits of CO₂, rather than relying on flawed models and extreme scenarios, is essential for informed and effective decision making.

PREFACE

This document originated in late March 2025 when Secretary Wright assembled an independent group to write a report on issues in climate science relevant for energy policymaking, with particular focus on the question of whether carbon dioxide emissions endanger the U.S. public including perspectives that challenge the mainstream consensus. We agreed to undertake the work on the condition that there would be no editorial oversight by the Secretary, the Department of Energy, or any other government personnel. This condition has been honored throughout the process and the writing team has worked with full independence.

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The group began working in early April with a deadline of May 28. The short timeline and the technical nature of the material meant that we could not comprehensively review all topics. Rather, we chose to focus on topics that are treated by a serious, established academic literature; that are relevant to our charge; that are downplayed in, or absent from, recent assessment reports; and that are within our competence.

While the report is intended to be accessible to non-experts, we have omitted some introductory or explanatory material that can easily be accessed elsewhere. Nor have we attempted to survey entire literatures related to the topics covered. We have focused as much as possible on literature published since 2020 and referenced previous IPCC and NCA assessment reports. We have also used data through 2024 where possible.

The writing team is grateful to Secretary Wright for the opportunity to prepare this report and for his support of independent scientific assessment and open scientific debate. We also acknowledge useful suggestions made by anonymous peer reviewers. We are also grateful to a team of anonymous peer-reviewers whose input helped improve the final report.

John Christy, Ph.D.

Judith Curry, Ph.D.

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Ross McKittrick, Ph.D.

Roy Spencer, Ph.D.

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**PART I: DIRECT HUMAN INFLUENCE ON ECOSYSTEMS AND THE
CLIMATE**

1 CARBON DIOXIDE AS A POLLUTANT

Chapter summary:

Carbon dioxide (CO₂) differs in many ways from the so-called Criteria Air Pollutants. It does not affect local air quality and has no human toxicological implications at ambient levels. It is an issue of concern because of its potential effects on the global climate, a complex issue that occupies much of this report.

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The Clean Air Act of 1970 defined six so-called Criteria Air Contaminants subject to regulation (EPA): particulate matter, ground-level ozone, sulfur dioxide, nitrogen dioxide, lead, and carbon monoxide. In 2007, the Supreme Court ruled that greenhouse gases (CO₂ among them) were also “pollutants” subject to regulation under Clean Air Act (Mass. v. EPA, 2007). While the definition of “pollutant” is ultimately a legal matter, there are important scientific distinctions between CO₂ and the Criteria Air Contaminants. The latter are subject to regulatory control because they cause local problems depending on concentrations that include nuisances (odor, visibility), damage to plants, and, at high enough exposure levels, toxicological effects in humans. In contrast, CO₂ is odorless, does not affect visibility and has no toxicological effects at ambient levels. It is a naturally occurring part of the atmosphere and a key component of human and plant respiration. CO₂ is essential for plant photosynthesis and higher levels are beneficial for vegetation. In these aspects, CO₂ is similar to water vapor.

Ambient outdoor air today contains about 430 parts per million (ppm) CO₂, increasing at about 2 ppm per year. The U.S. Occupational Safety and Health Administration issues guidelines for indoor workplaces in which elevated CO₂ might be encountered, such as where dry ice is used. The Permissible Exposure Limit is 5,000 ppm over 8 hours (OSHA, 2024). Allen *et al.* (2015) reported evidence of diminished performance on some cognitive tasks among workers in office cubicles when exposed to CO₂ levels above 1,000-1,500 ppm. These levels are far larger than any plausible ambient outdoor value through the end of the 22nd century.

The growing amount of CO₂ in the atmosphere directly influences the earth system by promoting plant growth (global greening), thereby enhancing agricultural yields, and by neutralizing ocean alkalinity. But the primary concern about CO₂ is its role as a greenhouse gas (GHG) that alters the earth’s energy balance, warming the planet. How the climate will respond to that influence is a complex question that will occupy much of this report.

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2 DIRECT IMPACTS OF CO₂ ON THE ENVIRONMENT

Chapter summary:

CO₂ enhances photosynthesis and improves plant water use efficiency, thereby promoting plant growth. Global greening due in part to increased CO₂ levels in the atmosphere is well-established on all continents.

CO₂ absorption in sea water makes the oceans less alkaline. The recent decline in pH is within the range of natural variability on millennial time scales. Most ocean life evolved when the oceans were mildly acidic. Decreasing pH might adversely affect corals, although the Australian Great Barrier Reef has shown considerable growth in recent years.

2.1 CO₂ and as a contributor to global greening

The growing CO₂ concentration in the atmosphere has the important positive effect of promoting plant growth by enhancing photosynthesis and improving water use efficiency. That is evident in the “global greening” phenomenon discussed below, as well as in the improving agricultural yields discussed in Chapter 10. Here we focus just on CO₂ fertilization; research on combined effects due to temperature and precipitation changes are discussed in Chapter 10.

2.1.1 Measurement of global greening

“Greening” refers to an increase in the fraction of the Earth’s surface covered by plants. It can be quantified by the “Leaf Area Index” (LAI) measured by satellite. Many studies over the past decade have confirmed a global greening pattern (increase in LAI) attributable in part to rising CO₂ levels. Zhu *et al.* (2016) was one of the first studies to report that global greening was detectable using satellite sensors. From 1982 to 2011 they detected greening over 25-50 percent of the Earth versus “browning” over only four percent and attributed 70 percent of the greening to rising CO₂ levels (see Figure 2.1). Other contributors included land-use changes, warming and nitrogen. The fraction attributable to CO₂ was largest in the tropics; other factors played more dominant roles in CONUS.

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Zheng *et al.* (2017) confirmed the pattern of greening, noting that o greening over thirty years it had added 8 percent to global leaf area and that greening was mitigating warming. Greening has been observed globally but, Chen et al. (2019) noted show that in China and India were exploiting much of it is driven by lit through land management changes. Thus, while China accounts for only 6.6 percent of global vegetated area it accounts for 25 percent of global net increase in LAI. Piao et al. (2020) noted that greening was even observable in the Arctic. Further, CO₂ fertilization effects are influenced by local temperature and nutrient and water availability, all of which vary regionally.

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While plant models predict increased photosynthesis in response to rising CO₂, Haverd *et al.* (2020) reported a CO₂ fertilization rate nearly double much larger than model predictions. That is, CO₂ fertilization had driven an increase in observed global photosynthesis by 30 percent since 1900, versus 17 percent predicted by plant models. This If true it would indicates that global models of the socioeconomic impacts of rising CO₂ have likely understated the benefits to crops and agriculture. Keenan et al (2023), however, estimated a lower fertilization rate more in line with models. The connection between CO₂ fertilization and agriculture will be discussed in Chapter 9.

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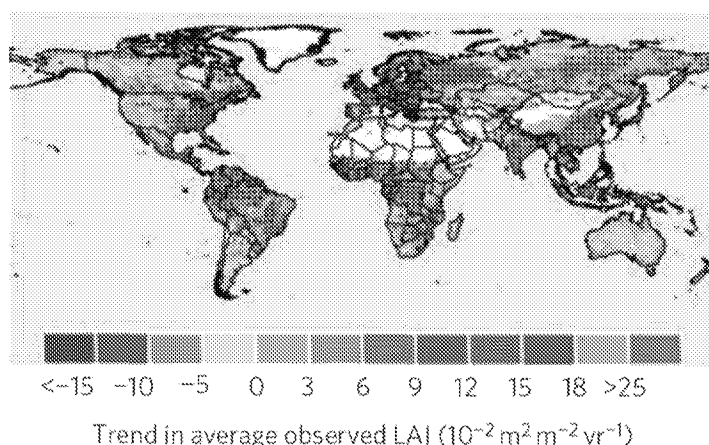


Figure 2.1: Trends in average Leaf Area Index (LAI). Source: Zhu *et al.* 2016 Figure 3.

Finally, Piao *et al.* (2020) and Chen *et al.* (2024) surveyed claims that greening had slowed since 2000 due to drought stress. They found instead that faulty satellite sensors were the cause and that the corrected data showed accelerated greening over 55 percent of the globe while browning was accelerating over only 7 percent. In other words, report that the greening trend continued continues with no evidence of slowdown, and CO₂ fertilization remained remains the dominant driver

2.1.2 Photosynthesis and CO₂ levels

Plants build biomass through *photosynthesis*, a process that converts carbon dioxide, water, and light into sugar. The plant enzyme responsible for photosynthesis is Ribulose-1,5-bisphosphate-carboxylase/oxygenase or “Rubisco”. Photosynthesis is initiated when CO₂ is available at the surface of the Rubisco enzyme where it is converted to a molecule with 3 carbon atoms and thereafter incorporated into plant mass. This is referred to as the “C3” process.

Rubisco is estimated to have evolved about 3 billion years ago. Over geological time the Earth’s atmospheric CO₂ levels were usually many times higher than they are today, as shown in Figure 2.2.

About 400 million years ago CO₂ levels were an estimated 2,000-4,000 ppm and were at or above 1,000 ppm for much of the interval from 200 to 50 million years ago (Berner 2006, Judd *et al.* 2024). Over the past 35 million years the level of atmospheric CO₂ has been steadily declining, falling to as low as 170 ppm during glaciations (Gerhart and Ward 2010). While the modern rate of change in CO₂ is likely high compared to all prior intervals, the geological evidence is that plants and animals evolved under much higher CO₂ levels than at present.

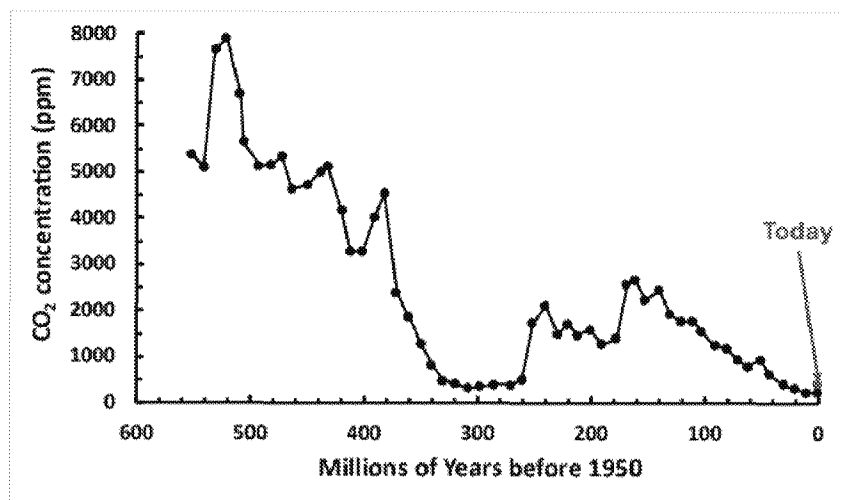


Figure 2.2. Ambient CO₂ levels over the past 550 million years. Today's concentration of 430 ppm is also shown. Source: (Berner 2006)

In response to low-CO₂ conditions some plants evolved another photosynthetic pathway called C₄, in which CO₂ is concentrated in the vicinity of Rubisco, allowing for the C₃ process to function more efficiently. For agricultural purposes the plant categories are:

- C₃: rice, wheat, soybeans and most other crops
- C₄: maize (corn), sugar cane, millet, sorghum

Had atmospheric CO₂ levels continued declining, plant growth would have declined and eventually ceased. Below 180 ppm, the growth rates of many C₃ species are reduced 40-60 percent relative to 350 ppm (Gerhart and Ward 2010) and growth has stopped altogether under experimental conditions of 60—140 ppm CO₂. Some C₄ plants are still able to grow at levels even as low as 10 ppm, albeit very slowly (Gerhart and Ward 2010).

Current CO₂ levels are about 430 ppm, up from 280 ppm in the early 1800s. The positive response of plants to extra CO₂ is illustrated in Figure 2.3, reproduced from Gerhart and Ward (2010). It shows the growth effect of CO₂ on Velvetleaf (*Abutilon theophrasti*) seedlings over 14 days under controlled conditions where only the CO₂ exposure is varied. The gains induced by increasing CO₂ from 150 ppm to 350 ppm continue under a further doubling to 700 ppm.

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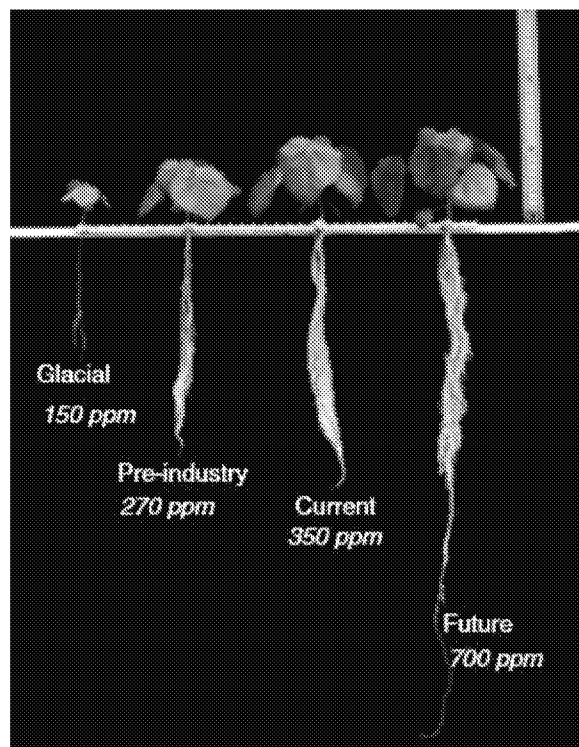


Figure 2.3: growth of *Abutilon theophrasti* after 14 days under identical conditions but for the indicated variations in CO₂ levels. Source: Gerhart and Ward (2010). Note “Current” corresponds to 1988 in image.

Over the past 60+ years there have been thousands of studies on the response of plants to rising CO₂ levels. The overwhelming theme is that plants, especially C3 plants, benefit from extra CO₂. There are two mechanisms by which CO₂ confers a growth benefit:

- Enhanced photosynthesis via the metabolic pathways described above.
- Increased water use efficiency. This arises because plants draw in CO₂ by opening the stomata (pores) on the leaf surface. When CO₂ is scarce the stomata must be kept wide open for long periods, allowing water to evaporate. Under enriched CO₂ conditions the stomata remain closed for longer periods, thus helping the plant retain water longer, and so increasing water use efficiency.

Specific effects of climate change on U.S. agriculture will be reviewed in Chapter 9.

2.1.3 Rising CO₂ and crop water use efficiency

Derying *et al.* (2016) surveyed evidence on crop water productivity (CWP), the yield per unit of water used, drawing attention to the potential for CO₂ both to enhance photosynthesis and to reduce leaf-level transpiration (water loss during leaf respiration). They surveyed all available FACE data (Free Air CO₂ Enrichment—see Chapter 9) on crop yield changes for maize (corn), wheat, rice, and soybean and combined

it with crop model data simulating yield responses as of 2080 under the extreme RCP8.5 emissions scenario in four growing regions (Tropics, Arid, Temperate and Cold) each of which were split into rainfed and irrigated sub-regions. They reported that models without CO₂ fertilization predicted CWP losses in every region, but those were more than offset by CO₂ fertilization so that all regions showed a net CWP gain. Deryng *et al.* (2016) also reported that negative impacts of warming on wheat and soybean yields were fully offset by CWP gains and mitigated by up to 90 percent for rice and 60 percent for maize.

Similarly, Cheng *et al.* (2017) noted that increased global plant growth ~~Cross Primary Production~~ from 1982 to 2011 due to rising CO₂ uptake was accompanied by such large gains in CWP that global water use by plants had not increased, despite the extra biomass.

Deryng *et al.* (2016) assumed that climate change would “exacerbate water scarcity”. Yet while models do predict that drylands will expand under climate warming, current data show the opposite: greening is happening even in arid areas. Zhang *et al.* (2024) report that due to increased CO₂ levels “increasing aridity in drylands won’t lead to a general loss of vegetation productivity”; at most only 4 percent of currently arid areas will see increased desertification.

2.1.4 CO₂ fertilization benefits in IPCC Reports

The IPCC has only minimally discussed global greening and CO₂ fertilization of agricultural crops. The topic is briefly acknowledged in a few places in the body of the IPCC 6th and earlier Assessment Reports but is omitted in all Summary documents. Section 2.3.4.3.3 of the AR6 Working Group I report, entitled “global greening and browning,” points out that the IPCC Special Report on Climate Change and Land had concluded with *high confidence* that greening had increased globally over the past 2-3 decades. It then discusses that there are variations in the greening trend among data sets, concluding that while they have *high confidence* greening has occurred, they have *low confidence* in the magnitude of the trend. There are also brief mentions of CO₂ fertilization effects and improvements in water use efficiency in a few other chapters in the AR6 Working Groups I and II Reports.

Overall, however, the Policymaker Summaries, Technical Summaries, and Synthesis Reports do not discuss the topic.

2.2 The Alkaline Oceans

2.2.1 Changing pH

A neutral aqueous solution has a pH of 7.0, while one with pH greater than 7.0 is alkaline (also termed basic) and with pH less than 7.0 is acidic. The modern-day global average pH of sea water is estimated to be 8.04 (Copernicus Marine Service 2025), down from an estimated value of 8.2 in pre-Industrial times (Gattuso and Hansson, 2011). As CO₂ concentrations in the atmosphere increased, the oceans absorbed more, which decreases their pH. Depending upon the oceans’ buffering capacity, they are expected to become somewhat less alkaline over time, consistent with the observed decrease in pH.

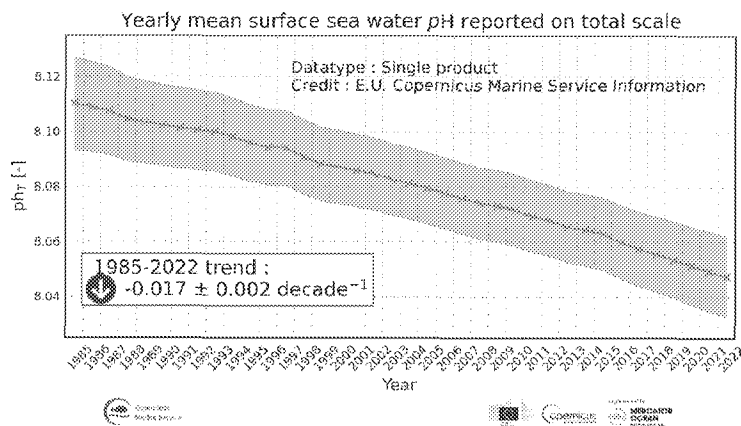


Figure 2.4: Ocean pH 1985 – 2022. Source: Copernicus Marine Service 2025

While this process is often called “ocean acidification”, it is a misnomer because the oceans are not expected to become acidic; “ocean neutralization” would be more accurate. Even if the water were to turn acidic, it is believed that life in the oceans evolved when the oceans were mildly acidic with pH 6.5 to 7.0 (Krissansen-Totton *et al.*, 2018). On the time scale of thousands of years, boron isotope proxy measurements show that ocean pH was around 7.4 or 7.5 during the last glaciation (up to about 20,000 years ago) increasing to present-day values as the world warmed during deglaciation (Rae *et al.*, 2018). Thus, ocean biota appear to be resilient to natural long-term changes in ocean pH since marine organisms were exposed to wide ranges in pH.

2.2.2 Coral reef changes

There are concerns that a decreasing pH of sea water will reduce the calcification rate of coral reefs. But coral reefs already endure large swings in pH, partly due to daily photosynthetic activity in the reef; measured pH values range from 9.4 during the day to 7.5 at night (Revelle and Fairbridge, 1957). De’ath *et al.* (2009) reported that a portion of Australia’s Great Barrier Reef (GBR, the world’s largest coral reef ecosystem) had experienced a 14 percent decline in calcification since 1990. This was tentatively attributed to increasing water temperature and decreasing pH. But Ridd *et al.* (2013) showed that report to have resulted from a biased data analysis that, when corrected, showed no change in calcification rates. Nevertheless, the alarm produced by the original paper has persisted as evidenced by the large number of published citations (541) to the original study compared to only 11 citations to the correction (as of 30 April 2025).

The most recent annual summary of GBR conditions from the Australian Institute of Marine Science indicates that coral production has rebounded strongly (AIMS, 2023). Figure 2.5 shows the results of the AIMS surveys of hard coral cover, expressed as a percentage of the reef area. Much of the decline in the GBR before 2011 turned out to be due to intense tropical cyclone activity (Beeden *et al.*, 2015) as well as a string of marine heatwaves, agricultural runoff and invasive species (Woods Hole, 2023). Given the reported declines in GBR calcification between 1990 and 2009 and the continued increase in atmospheric CO₂ levels the rebound has surprised some observers.

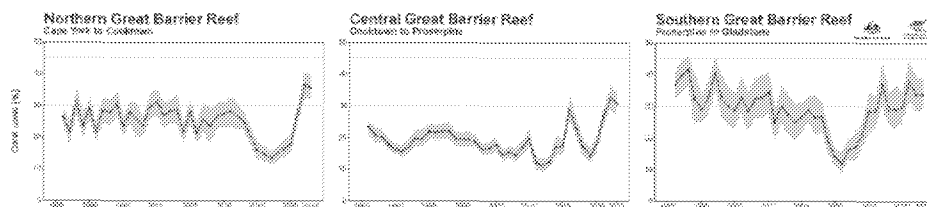


Figure 2.5 Hard coral cover of three regions of the Great Barrier Reef 1985 to 2023. Source: AIMS 2023.

It is being increasingly recognized that publication bias (alarming ocean acidification results preferred by high-impact research publications) exaggerates the reported impacts of declining ocean pH. An ICES Journal of Marine Science Special Issue addressed this problem with an article entitled, *Towards a Broader Perspective on Ocean Acidification Research*. In the Introduction to that Special Issue, H. I. Browman stated, “As is true across all of science, studies that report no effect of ocean acidification are typically more difficult to publish.” (Browman, 2016).

Similarly, a meta-analysis (Clements *et al.*, 2021) of the negative effects of ocean acidification on reef fish behavior found what they called a “decline effect”: initially dramatic conclusions published in prominent journals showing apparently large impacts of acidification tended to be followed up by subsequent studies on larger sample sizes yielding much smaller and typically non-existent effects. They call for their colleagues to improve research practices to counter the “decline effect”:

[The] vast majority of studies with large effect sizes in this field tend to be characterized by low sample sizes, yet are published in high-impact journals and have a disproportionate influence on the field in terms of citations. We contend that ocean acidification has a negligible direct impact on fish behavior, and we advocate for improved approaches to minimize the potential for a decline effect in future avenues of research (Clements *et al.*, 2021).

Mention the SROCC, spatial and temporal variability

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In summary, ocean life is complex and much of it evolved when the oceans were acidic relative to the present. The ancestors of modern coral first appeared about 245 million ago; as can be seen from Figure 2.2, CO₂ levels for more than 200 million years afterward were many times higher than they are today. Much of the public discussion of the effects of ocean “acidification” on marine biota has been one-sided and exaggerated. There is a known tendency for studies reporting dramatic effects on things like coral cover and fish behavior to get published in high-impact journals and receive widespread press coverage, then subsequent research rebutting those findings receives little attention.

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3 HUMAN INFLUENCES ON THE CLIMATE

Chapter Summary:

The global climate is naturally variable on all time scales. Anthropogenic CO₂ emissions add to that variability by changing the total radiative energy balance in the atmosphere.

The IPCC has downplayed the role of the sun in climate change but there are plausible solar irradiance reconstructions that imply it contributed to recent warming.

Climate projections are based on IPCC emission scenarios that have tended to exceed observed trends. Most academic climate impact studies in recent years are based upon the extreme RCP 8.5 scenario that is now considered implausible; its use as a business-as-usual scenario has been misleading.

Carbon cycle models connect annual emissions to growth in the atmospheric CO₂ stock. While models disagree over the rate of land and ocean CO₂ uptake, all agree that it has been increasing since 1959.

3.1 Components of radiative forcing and their history

3.1.1 Historical radiative forcing

A changing climate has been the norm throughout the Earth's 4.6-billion-year history. The Earth's temperature and weather patterns change naturally over timescales ranging from decades to millions of years. Natural variations in the surface climate originate in two ways. Internal climate fluctuations associated with circulations in the atmosphere and ocean exchange energy, water, and carbon between the atmosphere, oceans, land, and ice. External influences on the climate system include variations in the energy received from the sun and the effects of volcanic eruptions. Human activities influence climate through changing land use and land cover. Humans are also changing the composition of the atmosphere by emissions of CO₂ and other greenhouse gases and by altering the concentration of aerosol particles in the atmosphere.

The earth is warmed by the sunlight it absorbs and is cooled by the heat it radiates to space. Averaged over the Earth's surface, each of these processes involve power flows of about 240 Watts per square meter (W/m²). When they are in balance, there are no net external causes of warming or cooling. Both human and natural influences on the climate alter this balance and so cause the climate to change.

Influences on the Earth's energy balance at the top of the atmosphere are quantified by "radiative forcing", the extent to which they disturb the warming/cooling balance; a positive forcing warms while a negative forcing cools. The IPCC's estimated history of major components of radiative forcing since 1750 is shown in the following two figures from its AR6.

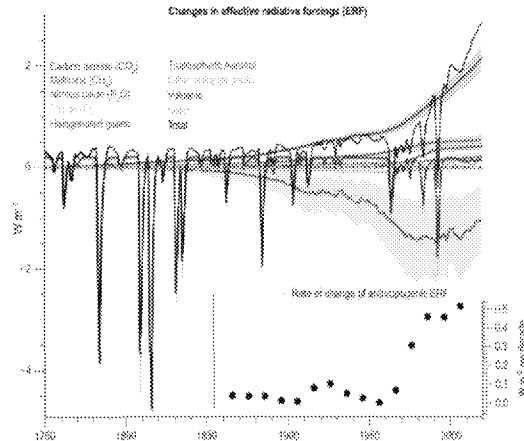


Figure 3.1.1: IPCC estimates of radiative forcing components over time. Shading indicates uncertainty ranges. Source: AR6 WGI Ch2 Fig. 10

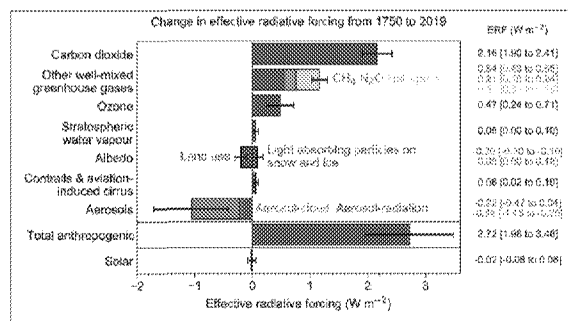


Figure 3.1.2 IPCC estimates of radiative forcing component changes from 1750 to 2019. Source: AR6 WGI Ch 7 Fig. 7-6.

These graphs show that the total radiative forcing is comprised of both natural and anthropogenic components. Carbon dioxide is the largest human influence on the climate and the one most relevant to the influence of fossil fuel use. It exerts a warming influence by decreasing the cooling power of the atmosphere. Emissions of CO₂ are accumulating in the atmosphere, as described in the following section, so that the warming influence is growing. Other greenhouse gases (methane, nitrous oxide, halogens, and ozone) act similarly, currently adding another 75 percent to CO₂'s warming. Aerosols exert an overall cooling effect, although with large uncertainties in the way they catalyze the formation of reflective clouds. As a result, understanding the causes of recent warming requires not just identifying the warming effects of CO₂, but also the more uncertain cooling effects of aerosols.

The IPCC assesses the change in the radiative forcing by the sun to be negligible, based on their preference for data reconstructions that imply minimal solar change since preindustrial times. But Connolly *et al.* (2021) reviewed sixteen different Total Solar Irradiance (TSI) reconstructions in the literature

covering the years 1600-2000; the reconstructions vary from almost no change in TSI to a relatively large upward trend. Those authors note that the variation in TSI reconstructions combined with variations in surface temperature reconstructions allows for inferences consistent with either no or most 20th century warming being attributable to the sun.

A particularly thorny issue is the gap in TSI data between 1989 and 1991 due to a delay in the launch of a monitor following the Space Shuttle Challenger disaster on January 28 1986. This delay prevented a replacement satellite from being launched in time to overlap with, and its readings to be intercalibrated with, the prior system (Zacharias 2014, Scafetta *et al.* 2019). This is called the ACRIM (Active Cavity Radiometer Irradiance Monitor) gap problem. The question of whether there is an upward trend in TSI over 1978 to 2018 hangs on how the ACRIM data gap is filled. Connolly *et al.* (2021) found that the IPCC's consensus statements on solar forcing were formulated prematurely through the suppression of dissenting scientific opinions.

Another natural radiative forcing component is volcanic aerosols, which exert an episodic cooling influence. Box 4.1 in the IPCC AR6 Report addresses the climate impact of volcanic eruptions, noting three explosive volcanic eruptions that occurred in the first half of the 19th century. This included the 1815 Tambora eruption that resulted in the 'year without summer', with multiple harvest failures across the Northern Hemisphere. There is uncertainty about the sign of the relatively small forcing due to the submarine volcano Hunga Tonga which erupted in 2022 (Jenkins *et al.* 2023, Schoeberl *et al.* 2024).

Figure 3.1.1 shows that the anthropogenic forcing component was negligible before about 1900 and has increased steadily since, rising to almost 3 W/m² today. However, this is still only about 1 percent of the unperturbed radiation flows, making it a challenge to isolate the effects of anthropogenic forcing; state-of-the-art satellite estimates of global radiative energy flows are only accurate to a few W/m².

Natural sources of global energy imbalance other than volcanoes and total solar irradiance (TSI) are not included in these graphs because they remain largely unknown.

3.1.2 Change in atmospheric CO₂ since 1958

Carbon dioxide's warming influence depends on how much "extra" CO₂ accumulates in the atmosphere- *i.e.*, its concentration above the preindustrial value of 280 ppm. The CO₂ level as recorded at the Mauna Loa observatory in Hawaii, generally used as the representative global average concentration, is available online at [HYPERLINK "<https://gml.noaa.gov/ccgg/trends/index.html>"]. The concentration was about 316 ppm at the start of the record in 1959 and is now about 430 ppm, a 36 percent increase. At the end of the last glaciation CO₂ levels had fallen to about 180 ppm. As discussed in Chapter 2, C3 plants begin dying at CO₂ levels below about 140 ppm and C4 plants at levels below 100 ppm, so if CO₂ levels had continued falling plant life would have been imperiled.

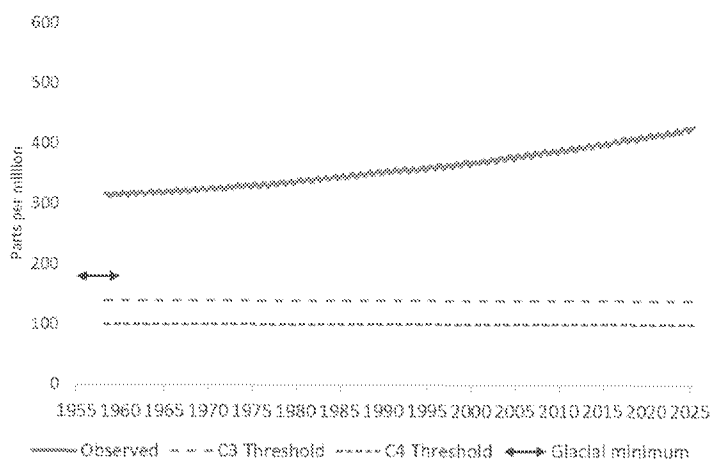


Fig. 3.1.3. Yearly average atmospheric CO₂ concentrations(1959-2025) in ppm measured at Mauna Loa (blue). C3 Threshold: Level below which C3 plants begin dying (140 ppm, see Chapter 2). C4 Threshold: Level below which C4 plants begin dying (100 ppm, see Chapter 2). Glacial minimum: Minimum level during recent glaciations (purple arrow). CO₂ data source: [[HYPERLINK "https://gml.noaa.gov/ccgg/trends/index.html"](https://gml.noaa.gov/ccgg/trends/index.html)]

The annual increase in concentration is only about half of the CO₂ emitted because land and ocean processes currently absorb “excess” CO₂ at a rate approximately 50 percent of the human emissions. Future concentrations, and hence future human influences on the climate, therefore depend upon two components: (1) future rates of global human CO₂ emissions, and (2) how fast the land and ocean remove extra CO₂ from the atmosphere. We discuss each of these in turn.

3.2 Future emission scenarios and the carbon cycle

3.2.1 Emission scenarios

Assessing the dangers of future GHG emissions requires assumptions about what those emissions will be. Future emissions, and hence human influences on the climate, will depend upon future demographics, economic activity, regulation, and energy and agricultural technologies. Various assumptions about each of those lead to projections of greenhouse gas emissions and concentrations, aerosol concentrations, and changes in land use, which ultimately can be combined into assumptions about anthropogenic radiative forcing.

The great uncertainties about these many factors make it impossible to precisely predict future emissions. Instead, the IPCC has created ~~created~~ used various sets of scenarios meant to span a plausible range of possibilities for population, economy, and technologies. Recent versions of the scenarios are labeled by a number indicating the anthropogenic radiative forcing expected in 2100 under that scenario. Thus, a scenario labeled with a “6” corresponds to 6 W/m² of human-induced radiative forcing (warming) at the end of the century. (Recall current anthropogenic radiative forcing is about 2.7 W/m².)

Although the IPCC does not claim its emission scenarios are forecasts, they are often treated as such. Comparisons of past scenario groups against observations show that IPCC emission projections have tended to overstate actual subsequent emissions. For the IPCC Third and Fourth Assessment Reports a set of emission projections from the *Special Report on Emission Scenarios* was used; these were referred to as the SRES scenarios. McKittrick *et al.* (2012) showed that, when converted to per capita values, the SRES scenario emissions distribution was skewed upwards compared with observed trends. McKittrick and Wood (2013) further showed that global energy market dynamics constrained global per capita CO₂ emissions to an extent not reflected in IPCC scenarios. The bias of the SRES scenarios was confirmed by the later analysis of Hausfather *et al.* (2019) who showed that observed atmospheric CO₂ concentrations tracked the low end of the SRES range and also of subsequent IPCC scenario ranges (Figure 3.2.1).

For AR5 the IPCC developed a new set of scenarios called the Representative Concentration Pathways (RCPs). These were identified by a number representing the increase in forcing and were thus called RCP2.6, RCP4.5, RCP6.0 and RCP8.5. RCP2.6 (implying an anthropogenic radiative forcing in 2100 of 2.6 W/m²) describes a GHG concentration pathway leading to warming well below 2°C. At the other end of the scale RCP8.5 is an extreme outcome implying nearly 5°C warming from 1900 to 2100.

RCP8.5 came to be referred to as the no-policy baseline, or “business-as-usual” scenario in both the academic literature and popular media. It was therefore used to generate the reference outcome supposedly representing the 21st century world in the absence of increasingly stringent emission reduction policies. But RCP8.5 was intended as a low-probability high emissions scenario and its use as a business-as-usual baseline has been criticized as grossly misleading.¹ Hausfather and Peters (2020a) writing in a commentary in *Nature*, pointed out that RCP8.5 was developed as an extreme worst-case, and its misuse as a “business as usual” baseline has resulted in a large number of misleading studies and media reporting.

The implausibility of the RCP8.5 scenario was examined by Burgess *et al.* (2021). The implausibility of RCP8.5 should not be interpreted as *very unlikely* (e.g. 95th percentile) or a “worst case”, but rather as genuinely implausible owing to the implausibility of the inputs required to reach a forcing of 8.5 W/m². They noted that RCP8.5 has already diverged from observed trends in energy use and the near future trends diverge sharply from those of the International Energy Agency (IEA), which provides market-based projections of energy use for the coming decades. Pielke Jr. *et al.* (2022) further showed that the historic and projected IEA trends, which are based on plausible extrapolations of current economic and demographic trends, run below the entire envelope of RCP8.5 from near the bottom of the envelopes of both RCP projections, implying not only that RCP8.5 is dubious, but that even lower emission scenarios are unlikely and the more recent Shared Socioeconomic Pathway (SSP) scenario trends.

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Schwalm *et al.* (2020) defended the use of RCP8.5 on the grounds that cumulative CO₂ emissions over 2005-2020 track it more closely than the lower RCP scenarios. They also argue that a modified version of the IEA scenarios closely track RCP8.5 in the coming decades. Hausfather and Peters (2020b) responded that the skill of RCP8.5 over those 15 years is due to offsetting errors in its representation of CO₂ from fuel use and land use change, and the apparent agreement with IEA in coming decades is due to Schwalm *et al.* adding in very high land use emissions. The IEA’s own projected CO₂ emissions track well below RCP8.5.

Widespread use of RCP8.5 as a no-policy baseline has created a bias towards alarm in the climate impacts literature. The extent of this problem was confirmed in a literature analysis by Pielke Jr. and Ritchie (2020). They found that some 16,800 scientific papers published between 2010 and 2020 used the RCP8.5 scenario, with about 4,500 of the articles linking RCP8.5 to the concept of “business-as-usual”. Their analysis showed how RCP8.5 was misused not only by individual researchers, but also by influential

¹ This extreme scenario is useful for modelers, since a large forcing generates a large response (warming) making it easier to assess a model’s sensitivity. But that’s very different than claiming it is a plausible future outcome.

science agencies like the IPCC and the U.S. National Climate Assessment (USNCA), which has directly led to misleading coverage in prominent media outlets.

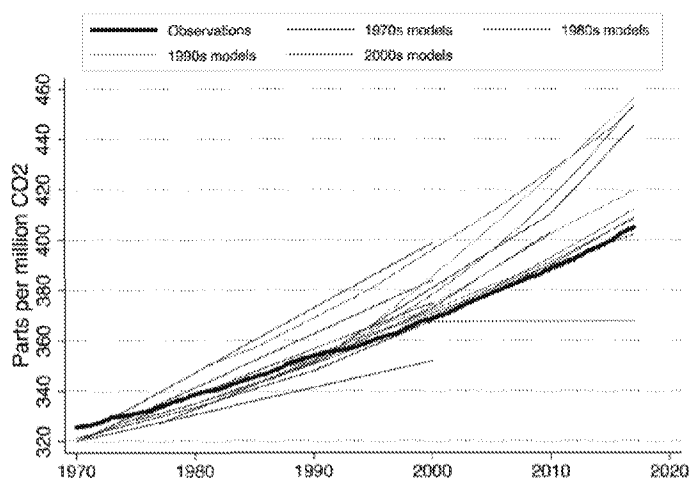


Figure 3.2.1 Since the 1970s successive families of emission and concentration projections (colored lines) have consistently overestimated observations (black line). Comparison of observed atmospheric CO₂ levels (black line) with scenario projections (colored lines, mainly IPCC) since the 1970s. Source: Hausfather *et al.* (2019) Figure S4.

Pielke and Ritchie (2020) reported new studies using RCP8.5 were published at a rate of about 20 per day, with about two per day specifically linking RCP8.5 and “business as usual.” They conclude that the climate research community has spent a decade “committing scientific resources to science fiction” and that “The scientific literature has become imbalanced in an apocalyptic direction.”

The IPCC developed a new set of scenarios for AR6, the “Shared Socioeconomic Pathway” (SSP) scenarios, which have continued the bias shown in the RCP and SRES scenarios. Figure 3.2.2 shows total global observed CO₂ emissions compiled by the International Energy Agency (IEA) merged with the emission projection from the IEA taking account of energy use projections and current policies. The other lines show the range of IPCC SSP scenarios (SSP1-SSP5). As of 2023, global CO₂ emissions have been tracking well below SSP7.0 and are even below SSP2-4.5.

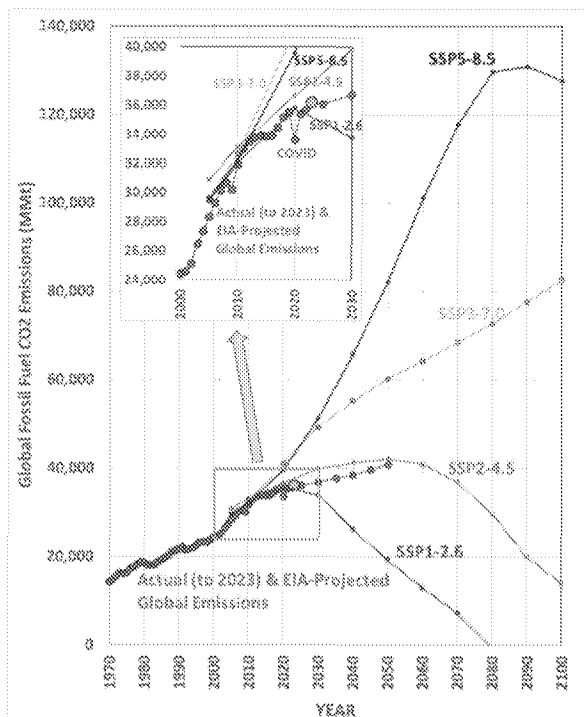


Figure 3.2.2. Observed and projected CO₂ emissions. Source: IPCC (SSP scenarios) and Energy Information Administration (EIA). Green: observed historical emissions and EIA projections. Other lines: SSP1-5. Data source: Friedlingstein *et al.* (2024).

3.2.2 The carbon cycle relating emissions and concentrations

Carbon dioxide emissions from fossil fuel burning (and to a lesser extent deforestation and cement production) have led to steadily increasing CO₂ concentrations in the atmosphere, as shown in Fig. 3.1.3. The relation between emissions and concentration is determined by the global carbon cycle of land and ocean processes that exchange carbon with the atmosphere. Our understanding of these processes was reviewed by Crisp *et al.* (2021).

There are about 850 Gt of carbon (GtC) in the Earth's atmosphere², almost all of it in the form of CO₂. Each year, biological processes (plant growth and decay) and physical processes (ocean absorption and outgassing) exchange about 200 GtC of that carbon with the Earth's surface (roughly 80 GtC with the land and 120 GtC with the oceans). Before human activities became significant, removals from the atmosphere were roughly in balance with additions. But burning fossil fuels (coal, oil, and gas) removes carbon from the ground and adds it to the annual exchange with the atmosphere. That addition (together with a much

² Because CO₂ is chemically transformed through the course of the carbon cycle, it is more convenient to track atoms of carbon rather than molecules of CO₂. One gigatonne of carbon (GtC) is equivalent to about 3.7 Gt of CO₂.

smaller contribution from cement manufacturing) amounted to 10.3 GtC in 2023, or only about 5 percent of the annual exchange with the atmosphere.

The carbon cycle accommodates about 50 percent of humanity's small annual injection of carbon into the air by naturally sequestering it through plant growth and oceanic uptake, while the remainder accumulates in the atmosphere (Ciais *et al.*, 2013). For that reason, the annual increase in atmospheric CO₂ concentration averages only about half of that naively expected from human emissions.

To project future CO₂ concentrations in the atmosphere, and hence future human influences on the climate, it is important to know how the carbon cycle might change in the future. The historical near constancy of that 50 percent fraction means that the more CO₂ humanity has produced, the faster nature removed it from the atmosphere. That 50 percent fraction changes somewhat from year to year due to natural carbon cycle imbalances from El Niño, La Niña, and varying weather patterns. There was also a substantial additional reduction in atmospheric CO₂ after the 1991 eruption of Mt. Pinatubo, a curious result that has yet to be explained (Angert *et al.*, 2004).

The main processes that remove excess CO₂ from the atmosphere are increased growth of land vegetation (especially at high latitudes), some increase in the sequestering of carbon in soils, and uptake of CO₂ by the ocean due to the increasing partial pressure of atmospheric CO₂ over that of CO₂ dissolved in the ocean. All twenty land carbon cycle models tracked by the Global Carbon Project (Friedlingstein *et al.*, 2024) show land processes have been removing excess CO₂ at an increasing rate since 1959. This is consistent with a "global greening" phenomenon (Chapter 2.1) observed by satellites since monitoring of global greenness began in 1982.

While land vegetation has been responding positively to more atmospheric CO₂, uptake of extra CO₂ by ocean biological processes remains too uncertain to be measured reliably. Our current understanding of these and many more carbon cycle processes was reviewed by Crisp *et al.* (2021).

CO₂ uptake by land processes

The uptake of extra CO₂ from the atmosphere by land surface processes (as also inferred from global greening) has been modeled with 20 different dynamic global vegetation models, the outputs of which are updated every year by the Global Carbon Project (Friedlingstein, 2024). As seen in Fig. 3.2.3, all of those models agree that vegetation and soils have been sequestering carbon from the atmosphere. But we also see that the long-term trends over 1959 to 2023 (65 years) vary widely between models, by nearly a factor of 7. This demonstrates that there remains considerable uncertainty in how fast land processes are removing CO₂ from the atmosphere, which in turn creates uncertainty in future atmospheric CO₂ concentrations, which then produce uncertainty in climate model simulations of future climate change.

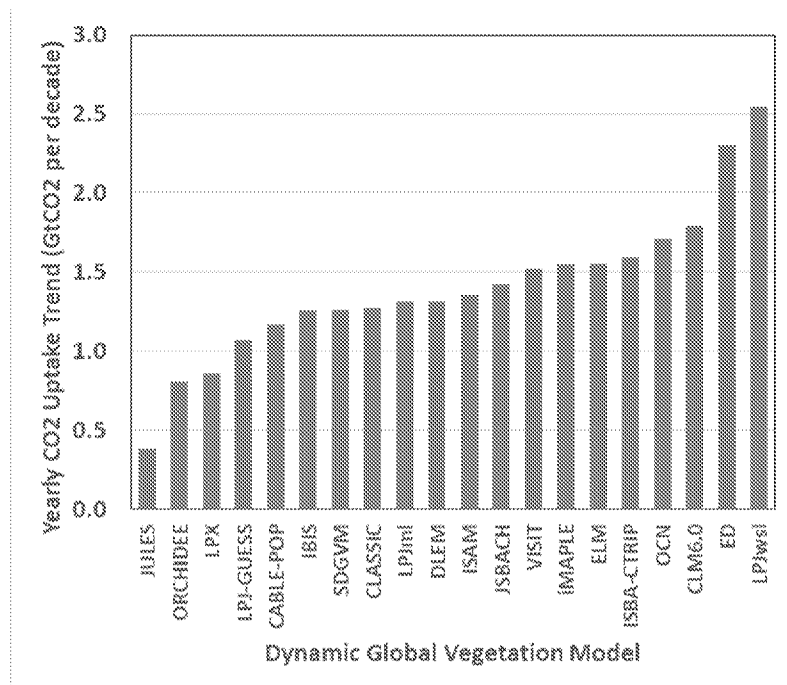


Figure 3.2.3 Trends of annual CO₂ uptake (GtCO₂ per year per decade) by land processes during 1959-2023 simulated by 20 different dynamic global vegetation models periodically reported by the Global Carbon Project (Friedlingstein, 2024).

CO₂ uptake by ocean processes

The uptake of extra CO₂ from the atmosphere by ocean processes has been modeled with 10 different ocean biogeochemistry models, the outputs of which are updated every year by the Global Carbon Project (Friedlingstein, 2024). Like the results from the land models, all of the ocean models agree that the global oceans have been sequestering carbon from the atmosphere at an increasing rate during 1959-2023 (Fig. 3.2.4). Unlike the land models, however, the ocean models show much better agreement with each other, with the model producing the fastest increasing CO₂ uptake being only 65 percent faster than the model with the most slowly increasing CO₂ uptake. In spite of the relative agreement among models, Friedlingstein *et al.* (2022) notes that there is substantial discrepancy between the different methods on the strength of the ocean sink over the last decade, particularly in the Southern Ocean.

Note that the average trend in CO₂ uptake across all land models in Fig. 3.2.3 is 25 percent larger than the average trend in ocean uptake. This suggests land processes are increasing in their ability to remove CO₂ faster than ocean processes are increasing their CO₂ sequestration.

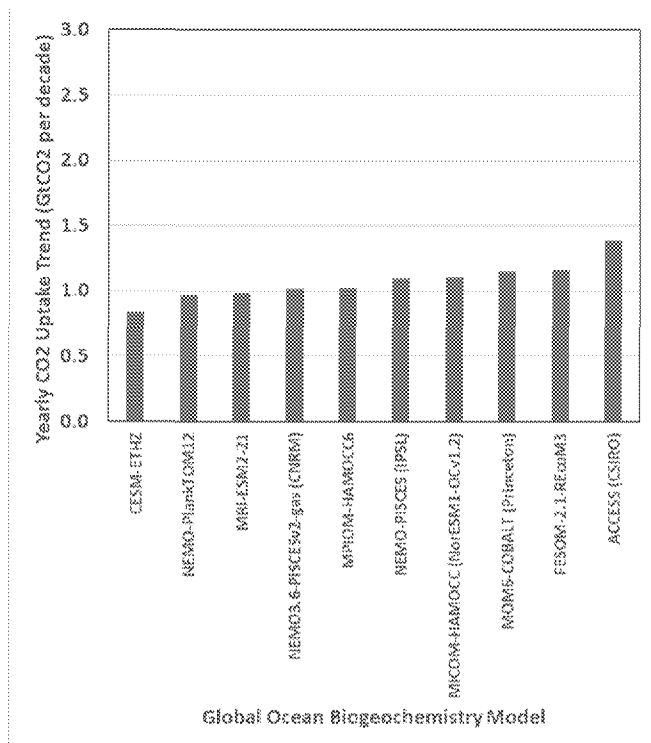


Figure 3.2.4 Trends of annual CO₂ uptake (GtCO₂ per year per decade) by ocean processes during 1959-2023 simulated by 10 different ocean biogeochemistry models periodically reported by the Global Carbon Project (Friedlingstein, 2024).

3.3 Urbanization influence on temperature trends

Historical temperature data over land has been collected mainly where people live. This raises the problem of how to filter out non-climatic warming signals due to Urban Heat Islands (UHI) and other changes to the land surface. If these are not removed the data might over-attribute observed warming to greenhouse gases. The IPCC acknowledges that raw temperature data are contaminated with UHI effects but claims to have data cleaning procedures that remove them. It is an open question whether those procedures are sufficient.

AR6 downplayed this issue by saying (WGI p. 235) that no recent evidence had emerged to alter the AR5 finding that urbanization causes an upward bias of no more than 10 percent in the global land surface warming trend. AR5 (WGI p. 189) also cited the 10 percent upper bound without citing a source. AR4 (WGI p. 244) cited Jones *et al.* (1990) and Peterson *et al.* (1999) as the basis of the claim. Peterson *et al.* had failed to find any difference in trends between rural and urban samples, although their definition of rural included local populations up to 10,000 persons while the relative influence of urbanization begins well below that (Spencer *et al.*, 2025). Jones *et al.* compared rural/urban warming in three regions: Eastern Australia, Eastern China and Western Soviet Union. Their definition of “rural” included towns of up to

10,000 in the former Soviet Union and up to 100,000 in China. They found relative warming biases greater than 10 percent in these areas but conjectured that the urbanization effect averaged over the areas they did not examine would bring the global land bias to under 10 percent of the observed warming trend.

Several papers appeared in print prior to the IPCC AR4 that argued that the warming effect of UHIs added a relatively large (30-50%) component to observed warming and was not simulated by climate models (de Laat and Maurellis 2006, McKittrick and Michaels 2007). These findings were based on correlations between locations of maximum warming over land with locations of maximum socioeconomic development. AR4 asserted (p. 244) that these correlations were an artefact of natural atmospheric circulations and were in fact statistically insignificant, and on that basis set the findings aside. Their claim was controversial because it was presented with no supporting evidence. McKittrick (2010) and McKittrick and Nierenberg (2010) showed that taking into account various conjectured alternative explanations for the correlations did not affect their significance. AR5 (p. 189) conceded that AR4 had provided “no explicit evidence” for its assessment and further acknowledged, based on these papers, that there was “significant evidence for such contamination of the record” i.e. a warming bias in the land record. However as already noted, elsewhere in the AR5 report they carried forward AR4 claim that it was less than 10 percent of observed warming. Further they provided no caution about using the land record for climate measurement despite conceding the evidence for UHI contamination. Recently Soon *et al.* (2023) estimated an urbanization bias in the Northern Hemisphere land record over 1850-2018 sufficient to increase the trend in the blended record from 0.55°C to 0.89°C per century.

Some studies providing evidence against UHI contamination compared warming rates between rural and urban locations (Jones *et al.* 1990, Peterson *et al.* 1999, Wickham *et al.* 2013). It is not known whether such methods would be capable of detecting UHI bias even when present. The influence of UHI warming is logarithmic in population, in other words it is strongest at low population density then levels off as local urbanization expands (Oke 1973, Spencer *et al.* 2025). Hence failure to find a difference in warming rates between urban and rural stations does not prove the absence of UHI contamination. McKittrick (2013) provided an empirical demonstration in which the rural/urban trends were not significantly different in a data set shown on other grounds to be contaminated with UHI bias.

Parker (2006) examined a sample of urban locations and found no difference in trends between subsets partitioned according to nighttime wind speed, concluding on this basis that urbanization could not be a significant factor. Here again the question is whether such a method would find UHI bias even if present. McKittrick (2013) presented an example in which UHI-contaminated data did not exhibit significant trend differences when stratified according to wind speed.

The challenge in measuring UHI bias is relating local temperature change to a corresponding change in population or urbanization, rather than to a static classification variable such as rural or urban. Spencer *et al.* (2025) used newly available historical population archives to undertake such an analysis and found evidence of significant UHI bias in U.S. summertime temperature data.

In summary, while there is clearly warming in the land record, there is also evidence that it is biased upward by patterns of urbanization and that these biases have not been completely removed by the data processing algorithms used to produce climate data sets.

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PART II: CLIMATE RESPONSE TO CO₂ EMISSIONS

4 CLIMATE SENSITIVITY TO CO₂ FORCING

Chapter Summary

There is growing recognition that climate models are not fit for the purpose of determining the Equilibrium Climate Sensitivity (ECS) of the climate to increasing CO₂. The IPCC has turned to data-driven approaches including historical data and paleoclimate reconstructions, but their reliability is diminished by data inadequacies.

Data-driven ECS estimates tend to be lower than climate model-generated values. The IPCC AR6 upper bound for the likely range of ECS is 4.0°C, lower than the AR5 value of 4.5°C. This lowering of the upper bound seems well justified by paleoclimatic data. The IPCC AR6 lower bound for the likely range of ECS is 2.5°C, substantially higher than the AR5 value of 1.5°C. This raising of the lower bound is less justified; evidence since the AR6 finds the lower bound of the *likely* range to be around 1.8°C.

4.1 Introduction

The magnitude of the climate's response to increasing concentrations of CO₂ is central to the scientific debate on anthropogenic climate change, and so also to the public debate on "climate action." The simplest measure of that response is the rise in the global average surface temperature, quantified by the Equilibrium Climate Sensitivity (ECS). ECS is defined as the amount of warming expected in response to a doubling of CO₂ from its pre-industrial concentration of 280 ppm, after all climate components have had time to adjust. Some components, like temperatures in the lower atmosphere (troposphere), adjust rapidly, while others such as the deep ocean and cryosphere might take as long as centuries. A related measure, the Transient Climate Response (TCR), better describes the shorter time scales; it is defined as the amount of warming when the CO₂ concentration is doubled by rising one percent annually for 70 years.

The 1979 Charney Report for the U.S. National Academy of Sciences (National Research Council 1979) proposed that the most likely ECS was $3.0 \pm 1.5^\circ\text{C}$. The IPCC repeatedly reaffirmed that range with only minor variations until its most recent AR6. AR5 termed 1.5–4.5°C as the *likely* range (66 percent probability) and stated that ECS is *extremely unlikely* (95 percent probability) to be below 1.0°C and *very unlikely* (90 percent probability) to exceed 6.5°C.

The uncertainty in ECS has remained stubbornly wide, despite many individual studies that claimed to narrow it (Hausfather 2023). Most recently, AR6 narrowed the *likely* range to 2.5–4.0°C and deemed the *very likely* range to be 2.0–5.0°C. This narrowing on the low end is disputed, as will be discussed below.

Uncertainties in ECS are highly consequential for policy making. As will be discussed in Chapter 11, economic models use ECS values to project the costs of CO₂ emissions. The traditional value (3.0 °C) has typically yielded modest global social costs of CO₂ emissions, sufficient to justify some policy actions, but mostly deferred to later in this century. If ECS is very high (above 4.5°C) immediate aggressive emission controls become more imperative, whereas no CO₂ emission controls are economically justifiable for ECS below 2.0°C (Dayaratna *et al.* 2016, 2017, 2020). Obtaining a precise estimate is impossible, so policy making needs to account for the uncertainty.

By itself, the equilibrium warming effect of a doubling of atmospheric CO₂ is slightly more than 1 °C (Soden and Held 2006). Larger values of ECS arise from positive feedbacks that amplify the CO₂ warming. Water vapor feedback is positive: a warmer atmosphere might have more water vapor, which itself is a powerful greenhouse gas. Warmer temperatures also result in less snow and sea ice cover, allowing the

Earth to absorb more of the sun's radiation. Some simple estimates of these feedbacks increase the ECS to around 2°C (Sherwood *et al.*, 2020). Larger values of ECS are associated with positive cloud feedbacks.

Climate scientists use multiple lines of evidence to determine the Equilibrium Climate Sensitivity:

- Climate model simulations
- Historical observations
- Paleoclimatic reconstructions
- Process understanding of feedbacks

4.2 Model-based estimates of climate sensitivity

The ECS ranges given in IPCC AR4 and AR5 were obtained primarily by examining the behavior of large-scale climate models, also called General Circulation Models (GCMs). However, the IPCC changed course in its AR6 when it turned to a more direct data-driven methodology. Here we discuss some of the pitfalls of using GCMs to try to determine the Earth's climate sensitivity.

In principle, ECS is an emergent property of GCMs—that is, it is not directly parameterized or tuned, but rather emerges in the results of the simulation. Otherwise plausible GCMs and parameter selections have been discarded because of perceived conflict with an expected warming rate, or aversion to a model's climate sensitivity being outside an accepted range (Mauritsen *et al.* 2012). This practice was commonplace for the models used in AR4; modelers have moved away from this practice with time. However, even in a CMIP6 model, Mauritsen and Roeckner (2020) state the following regarding their Max Planck Institute (MPI) climate model (emphasis added):

“We have documented how we tuned the MPI-ESM1.2 global climate model to match the instrumental record of warming; an endeavor which has clearly been successful. Due to the historical order of events, the choice was to do this practically by **targeting an ECS of about 3 K using cloud feedbacks**, as opposed to tuning the aerosol forcing.”

In other words, the MPI modelers chose an ECS value of 3°C and then tuned the cloud parameterizations to match their intended result.

As noted, direct warming from CO₂ doubling is only about 1°C (Soden and Held 2006); further warming arises from climate feedbacks that are not explicitly resolved by the GCM but rely on parameterizations of physical processes. Higher values of ECS arise primarily from assumed positive cloud feedbacks, whereas the magnitude and even the sign of the feedbacks are very uncertain. Elements of cloud feedback include changes in the latitudinal distribution of clouds, changes in the distribution of cloud height (changes in low versus high clouds), changes to the phase of clouds (ice versus liquid), changes in cloud particle size (associated with changes in concentration and/or composition of aerosol particles), changes in the precipitation efficiency of clouds, and even changes in how clouds are distributed over the daily solar cycle (Curry and Webster, 1999). It is difficult for GCMs to simulate any of these processes correctly owing to their small scale, let alone predict how they will change in the future. Further, cloud processes modulate the magnitudes of the water vapor, lapse rate, and the surface albedo feedbacks.

ECS can be determined from climate model simulations by doubling the concentration of CO₂ and allowing several centuries for the warming to equilibrate. To avoid the need for such long simulations, “effective climate sensitivity” is commonly evaluated from a 150-year simulation in response to a sudden quadrupling of CO₂.

The spread of ECS values from the CMIP5 ensemble of climate models used in AR5 was 2.0–4.7°C; that range increased for the CMIP6 models used in AR6 to between 1.8 and 5.7°C (Chen *et al.*, 2021, Scafetta 2021, see Figure 4.1). Far from resolving the model-based climate sensitivity the range appears to be growing. The main cause of the overall upward shift in ECS in CMIP6 relative to CMIP5 is a larger positive cloud feedback, driven by changes to the cloud parameterizations in many CMIP6 models (Zelinka *et al.*, 2020)

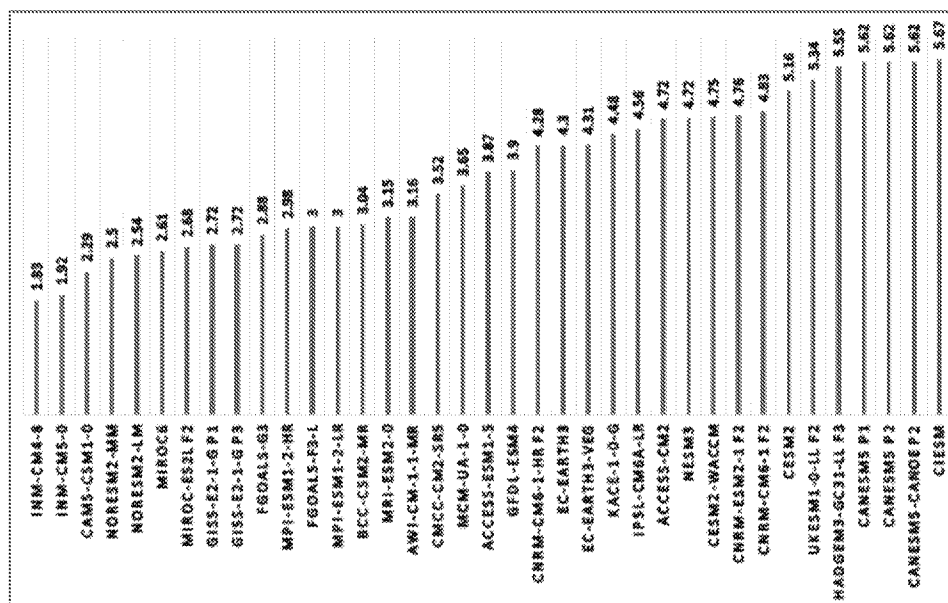


Figure 4.1 Equilibrium Climate Sensitivities in °C of 37 climate models from the CMIP6 ensemble. Identifiers for the various models appear along the horizontal axis. From (Scafetta, 2021)

Because of concerns about model tuning and the high sensitivity to cloud parameterizations, the IPCC AR6 (2021) did not rely on climate model simulations in their assessment of climate sensitivity, relying instead on data-driven methods.

4.3 Data-driven estimates of climate sensitivity

Climate sensitivity can also be estimated from instrumental records of surface temperatures and ocean heat content, combined with estimates of how climate forcings (e.g., greenhouse gases, solar, volcanoes, aerosols) have changed in the past (Otto *et al.*, 2013). Using this information, a simple empirical model called an Energy Balance Model can be employed. It requires estimating a feedback parameter whose uncertainties are highly amplified in the resulting ECS (Roe and Baker, 2007).

The accuracy of the data-driven methods depends on the quality of the input data. Assumptions are needed about ocean heat storage, and good data is only available for recent decades. The greatest source of uncertainty is the amount and composition of aerosol particles and their interactions with cloud radiative properties (the so-called aerosol indirect effect; see Figures 3.1.1, 3.1.2). Climate models exhibit warming in response to GHGs but cooling in response to aerosols (Schwartz *et al.*, 2007). Observed 20th century warming can be shown to be consistent either with low ECS and low aerosol cooling, or high ECS and high aerosol cooling. Since fossil fuel use adds both GHGs and aerosols to the atmosphere, both effects need to be estimated to isolate the warming effect of CO₂.

Paleoclimate proxies are also used to evaluate the sensitivity of past climates by comparing paleoclimate changes in the Earth's temperatures to estimates of changes in forcings. The two most informative periods are the last glacial maximum (around 20,000 years ago), which was about 3–7°C colder than today, and a mid-Pliocene period (roughly three million years ago), which was 1–3°C warmer than today. The limits on cooling during the last glacial maximum give the best single evidence that high values of climate sensitivity are unlikely. However, paleoclimate estimates are associated with very large uncertainties in the estimated temperatures and forcings. Further, estimates of climate sensitivity based on past climate states might not be applicable to the current state of the climate system.

A recurring theme in the climate literature is that ECS estimates based on historical data are smaller than ECS estimates inferred from climate models (Sherwood and Forest 2024). About 15 estimates based on historical data appeared in the peer-reviewed literature between 2012 and 2024 yielding ECS best estimates between 1.0°C and 2.5°C, although critics have questioned some of the methods and the data quality. For AR6, the IPCC placed primary weight on the results of Sherwood *et al.* (2020) that combined historical data and paleoclimate proxies with the process-based approach and yielded a best estimate of 3.1°C with a *likely* range of 2.6–3.9°C. Lewis (2022) raised a number of concerns about this result, including methodological errors, outdated input values, and use of subjective Bayesian priors in the analysis. Lewis' analysis found that climate sensitivity is estimated to be much lower and better constrained than in the Sherwood *et al.* analysis – median 2.2°C (1.8–2.7°C in the 17–83 percent *likely* range, and 1.6–3.2°C in the 5–95 percent *very likely* range). The IPCC AR6 estimated only a 5 percent probability that ECS was below 2.3°C, whereas Lewis estimated it to be over 50 percent. The most recent publications on the debate between Sherwood *et al.* and Lewis further defend their respective positions: Sherwood and Foster (2024) and Lewis (2025).

An argument emphasized in AR6 is that data-driven ECS estimates might understate the future warming response to GHGs because of a so-called “pattern effect” (Forster *et al.*, 2021). The tropical Pacific is believed to strongly influence the overall efficiency with which the Earth radiates heat to space, but some regions remove heat more efficiently than others. If the west-to-east temperature gradient in the tropical Pacific is weakened in a warming climate, warming would concentrate where heat is less efficiently removed, raising ECS.

Most climate models simulate that rising GHGs will weaken the west-east temperature gradient, which led the IPCC in AR6 to conclude that data-driven ECS estimates understated the *future* ECS value. However, Seager *et al.* (2019) pointed out that, contrary to models, the west-east temperature gradient has been strengthening over time. They further argued that the mechanism predicting otherwise in climate models was based on a faulty characterization of oceanic dynamics and there is no reason to expect the gradient to weaken. A similar argument was recently made by Lee *et al.* (2024), who concluded that “the trajectory of the observed trend reflects the response to increasing GHG loading in the atmosphere”; in other words, GHG warming should lead to a future strengthening rather than a weakening of the temperature gradient. Increased efficiency of atmospheric cooling implies, if anything, that the future ECS in a warming climate might be *lower* than current estimates.

4.4 Transient Climate Response

The Transient Climate Response (TCR) provides a more useful observational constraint on climate sensitivity. TCR is the global temperature increase that results when CO₂ is increased at an annual rate of 1 percent over a period of 70 years (*i.e.*, doubled gradually). Relative to the ECS, observationally determined values of TCR avoid the problems of uncertainties in ocean heat uptake and the fuzzy boundary in defining equilibrium arising from a range of timescales for the longer-term feedback processes (*e.g.*, ice sheets). TCR is more generally related to peak warming and better constrained by historical warming, than ECS. IPCC AR6 judged the *very likely* range of TCR to be 1.2–2.4°C. In contrast to ECS, the upper bound of TCR is more tightly constrained. For comparison, the TCR values determined by Lewis (2023) are 1.25 to 2.0°C, showing much better agreement with AR6 values than was seen in a comparison of the ECS values.

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5 DISCREPANCIES BETWEEN MODELS VERSUS AND INSTRUMENTAL OBSERVATIONS IN THE RECENT PAST

Chapter summary

Climate models show warming biases in many aspects of their reproduction of the past several decades. In response to estimated changes in forcing they produce too much warming at the surface (except in the models with lowest ECS), too much warming in the lower- and mid-troposphere and too much amplification of warming aloft.

Climate models also produce too much recent stratospheric cooling, invalid hemispheric albedos, too much snow loss, and too much warming in the Corn Belt. The IPCC has acknowledged some of these issues but not all.

5.1 Introduction

Climate models are the primary tool used to project future climate changes in response to increasing atmospheric levels of anthropogenic greenhouse gases. To assess the fitness of climate models for this purpose, it is reasonable to ask how well they reproduce the current climate and its variations over the past century. The box “Climate modeling” gives some detail on how climate models work.

Of great concern is the fact that, after several decades of the climate modeling enterprise involving approximately three dozen models operated by research centers around the world, the range of future warming they produce in response to a hypothetical doubling of atmospheric CO₂ extends over a factor of three, as we discussed in the previous chapter. This range of disagreement among models has not decreased for decades.

Problems with climate models are not just in their disagreement over the future, but also in their ability to replicate the recent past. Here we review some of the most important metrics of climate model accuracy: ability to reproduce historical surface, tropospheric and stratospheric temperature trends; ability to reproduce the vertical warming profile; and ability to reproduce other climate features such as snowfall. In all cases a persistent finding is that models on average err on the side of too much warming in response to estimated historical forcings.

BOX: Climate modeling

Most climate models, except for the simplest ones, represent Earth's land surface using a grid of squares on the order of 100 km wide. To simulate the atmosphere, typically 30 or more grid boxes are stacked above these squares. The ocean is modeled using a similar but finer grid, resulting in tens of millions of grid boxes for the atmosphere and oceans.

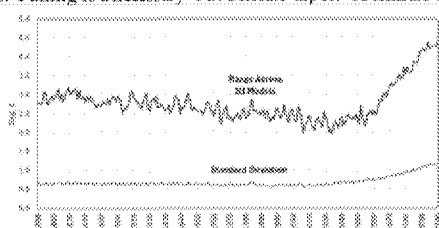
The computer models, based on physical laws, calculate how air, water, and energy move between grid boxes over time. The time step can be as small as 10 minutes, and repeating this process millions of times allows the simulation of climate over centuries. Running these models, even on the most powerful supercomputers, can take months. Comparing simulation results with historical climate data helps assess the accuracy of a model, while projections into the future estimate climate changes under assumed human and natural influences.

Despite sounding straightforward, climate modeling is highly complex. Many critical processes occur at scales smaller than the grid size. For instance, the flows of sunlight and heat in the atmosphere depend strongly on cloud cover. Since tracking individual clouds is impractical, researchers must make “subgrid” assumptions about the distribution of clouds in each grid box. Snow and ice cover, which affects how much sunlight is reflected or absorbed by the surface, is another subgrid factor.

Each subgrid assumption requires numerical parameters, which must be carefully set. Modelers initially estimate these parameters based on physics and observed climate patterns, then run the model. Because early results often diverge significantly from real-world observations, they “tune” these parameters to better match observed climate features. Different modeling teams use distinct assumptions and tuning strategies, leading to varied outcomes. Tuning is a necessary but delicate aspect of climate modeling, as it is for any complex system.

Poor tuning can predetermine

The spread of Earth's average narrows slightly 1.0°C. This ve



g risks artificially steering results toward

One of the most basic indicators— 16 models prior to 1880 (Figure 5.1), 20th century warming was only about physical processes.

Figure 5.1 CMIP6 Average surface temperature range across 33 models and standard deviation using SSP5-85 scenario. Data from KNMI Climate Explorer website at [[HYPERLINK "https://climexp.knmi.nl/start.cgi"](https://climexp.knmi.nl/start.cgi)].

Beyond the models' ability to reproduce features of today's climate, the critical issue for society is how well they predict responses to subtle human influences, such as greenhouse gas emissions, aerosol cooling, and land-use changes. The most crucial aspect that models must capture correctly is “feedbacks.” These occur when climate changes either amplify or suppress further warming. In general, the modeled net effect of all feedbacks doubles or triples the direct warming impact of CO₂.

5.2 Surface warming

A straightforward test of a climate model's validity is its ability to reproduce historical warming in response to known past changes in climate drivers such as greenhouse gases. Figure 5.2 is reproduced from Scafetta (2023), that groups the latest-generation (CMIP6) climate models into low ECS (1.5 to 3.0 degrees C), medium ECS (3.0 to 4.5 degrees C) and high ECS (4.5 to 6.0 degrees C), and compares their post-1980 global average temperature simulation ranges to those of three surface temperature records and one satellite-based lower troposphere temperature data product.

The leftmost column shows that the low-ECS models track the post-1980 historical warming record reasonably well, but the middle and right columns show that the medium- and high-ECS models conspicuously over-predict the warming.

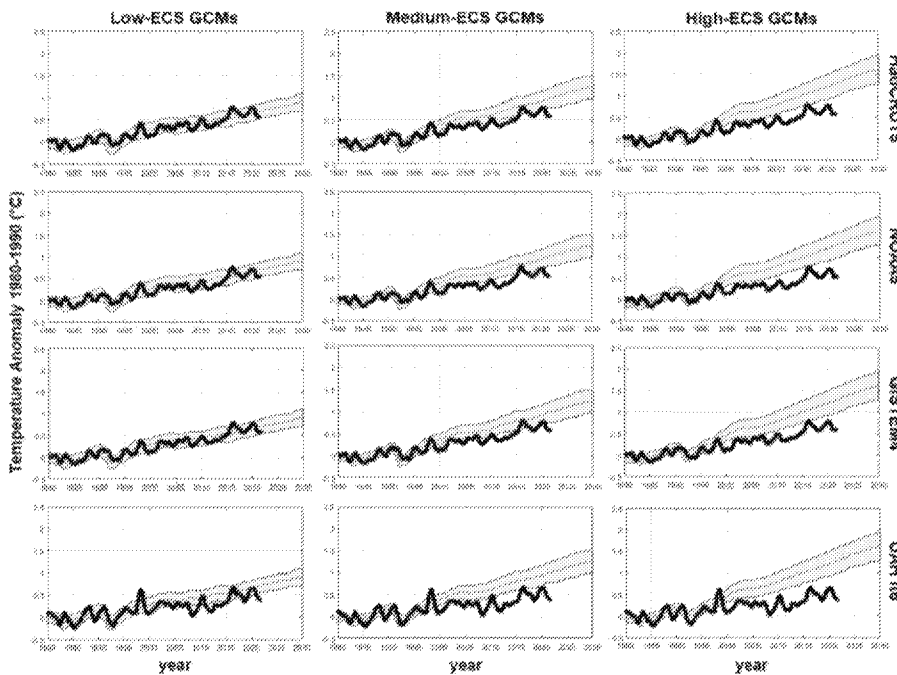


Figure 5.2: Model-Observational comparisons for Earth's surface warming. The columns correspond to model groups showing low-ECS (13 models), medium-ECS (11 models) and high-ECS (14 models), while the rows correspond to widely-used observed temperature records, the first three showing surface averages and the fourth showing the lower troposphere average. In each panel the yellow area denotes the mean and range ($\pm$ one standard deviation) of climate model simulations for that group. The thick black line shows the observed annual average temperature in the indicated source. Source: Scafetta (2023) Fig.2.

Spencer (2024) has also provided a useful summary of the Model-Observation mismatch by comparing trends in surface temperature data products with those in individual climate models, as summarized in Figure 5.3; most climate models show substantially more warming than the observations since 1979.

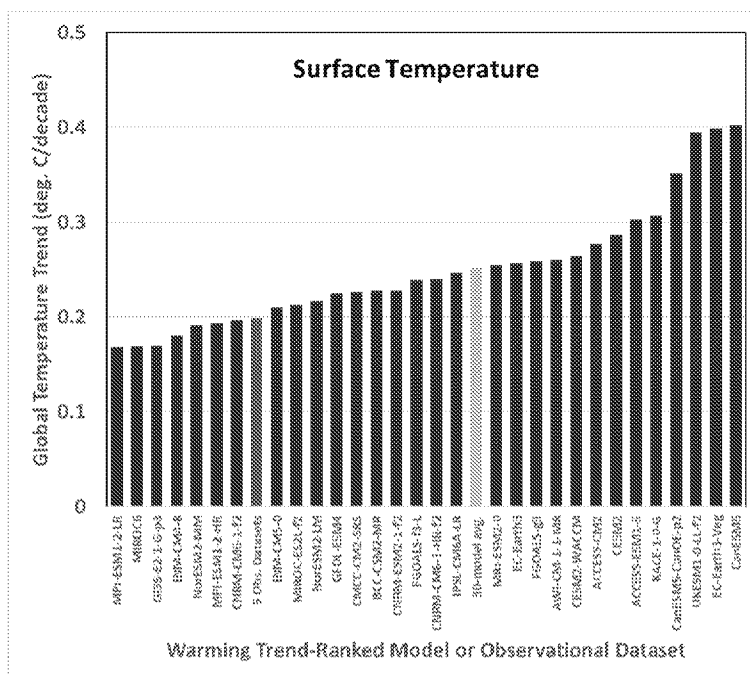


Figure 5.3 Global surface air temperature trends (°C/decade), 1979–2024, from various CMIP6 climate models (red, 30-model average in orange); and the average of three thermometer datasets (HadCRUT5, NOAA Global Temp, and Berkeley 1 deg.) and two reanalysis datasets (ERA5 and NCEP/NCAR R1) in blue. Data source: <https://climexp.knmi.nl/start.cgi>.

5.3 Tropospheric warming

It has long been known that climate models on average overstate warming in the tropical troposphere. This region is an important test of climate models since this is where the signal of anthropogenic greenhouse warming emerges first and most strongly. Biases in tropospheric trends indicate model flaws in heat transfer processes that carry over to surface warming biases.

The discrepancy was flagged as a serious inconsistency in the first U.S. Climate Change Science Program report (Karl *et al.* 2006) and has been mentioned in every IPCC report since, but the discrepancy has gotten worse over time, and the bias is now global. McKittrick and Christy (2020) compared tropospheric warming trends in CMIP6 climate models to observed trends from satellites, weather balloons and reanalysis systems. Every model overpredicted the average observed warming trend over 1979-2014 in both Lower- and Mid-Troposphere layers, both globally and in the tropics. In most individual models the bias was statistically significant and on average across models it was highly significant.

Figure 5.4 presents the comparisons with data updated to 2024 (McKittrick and Christy 2025). The recent warm years moved the observed trend up slightly and widened the trend confidence intervals but the overall pattern remains the same: model bias is towards too much warming, in most cases the difference is statistically significant and on average the bias is statistically highly significant. McKittrick and Christy (2020) also showed that the bias is larger in high-ECS models, but even the models with lower average ECS predict too much warming. If future climate models were to realistically represent global tropospheric warming, they would likely be less sensitive than even the low-ECS members of the CMIP6 ensemble.

Chung

Chung, ES, Kim, SJ, Sohn, BI, et al. Multi-decadal climate variability and satellite biases have amplified model-observation discrepancies in tropical troposphere warming estimates. *Commun. Earth Environ* 5, 342 (2024). <https://doi.org/10.1038/s43247-024-01510-8>

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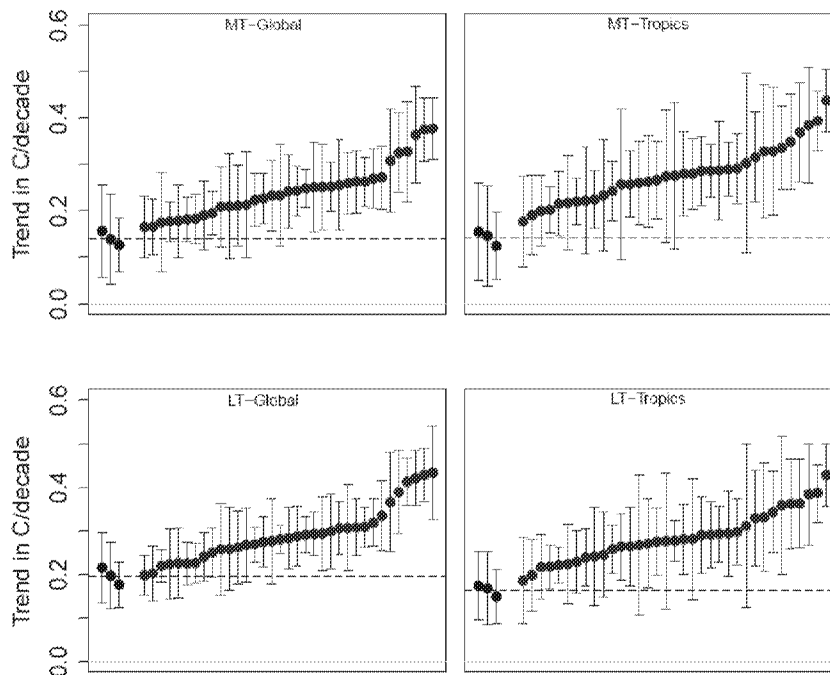


Figure 5.4: Observed versus CMIP6 modeled warming trends (°C/decade 1979-2024) in the global and tropical lower (LT) and mid-troposphere (MT). Uses methodology of McKittrick and Christy (2020) on data updated from 2014 to 2024. Blue dots: warming trends with 95 percent confidence intervals for 3 data products (radiosondes, reanalysis, and satellites). Blue dashed line: warming trend average for 3 observed series. Red dots: modeled warming trends with 95 percent confidence intervals in 35 models arranged lowest to highest.

As mentioned previously, the IPCC has long acknowledged the model-observation mismatch. For example, AR6 pp. 443-444 offers this on the tropical troposphere (it does not address the global comparison):

Several studies since AR5 have continued to demonstrate an inconsistency between simulated and observed temperature trends in the tropical troposphere, with models simulating more warming than observations (Mitchell *et al.*, 2013, 2020; Santer *et al.*, 2017a, b; McKittrick and Christy, 2018; Po-Chedley *et al.*, 2021)... Over the 1979–2014 period, models are more consistent with observations in the lower troposphere, and least consistent in the upper troposphere around 200 hPa, where biases exceed 0.1°C per decade. Several studies using CMIP6 models suggest that differences in climate sensitivity may be an important factor contributing to the discrepancy between the simulated and observed tropospheric temperature trends (McKittrick and Christy, 2020; Po-Chedley *et al.*, 2021), though it is difficult to deconvolve the influence of climate sensitivity, changes in aerosol forcing and internal variability in contributing to tropospheric warming biases (Po-Chedley *et al.*, 2021). Another study found that the absence of a hypothesized negative tropical cloud feedback could explain half of the upper troposphere warming bias in one model (Mauritsen and Stevens, 2015).

... In summary, studies continue to find that CMIP5 and CMIP6 model simulations warm more than observations in the tropical mid- and upper-troposphere over the 1979–2014 period (Mitchell *et al.*, 2013, 2020; Santer *et al.*, 2017a, b; Suárez-Gutiérrez *et al.*, 2017; McKittrick and Christy, 2018), and that overestimated surface warming is partially responsible (Mitchell *et al.*, 2013; Po-Chedley *et al.*, 2021). ... Hence, we assess with *medium confidence* that CMIP5 and CMIP6 models continue to overestimate observed warming in the upper tropical troposphere over the 1979–2014 period by at least 0.1°C per decade,

Notably, despite the accumulation of evidence of excess model warming the IPCC assigns only *medium confidence* to the existence of a warming bias. Increasing resolution won't fix structural errors

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5.4 Vertical temperature profile mismatch

Another important model-observational discrepancy is the excess amplification with altitude found in climate models. The comparison was in the IPCC AR5 Chapter 10, although only in the online supplement (Figure 10.SM.1) and only in a figure whose formatting obscured the point. Figure 10.SM.1 is not referenced in the main IPCC report nor in any summary so readers would not have been aware of it. Although not apparent at first glance, it shows that the 1979–2010 warming in the lower troposphere is so small as to be consistent with no GHG forcing at all and is inconsistent with the model runs that do have GHG forcing. In Figure 5.6 we adapt IPCC AR5 Figure 10.SM.1 to draw out this critical point.

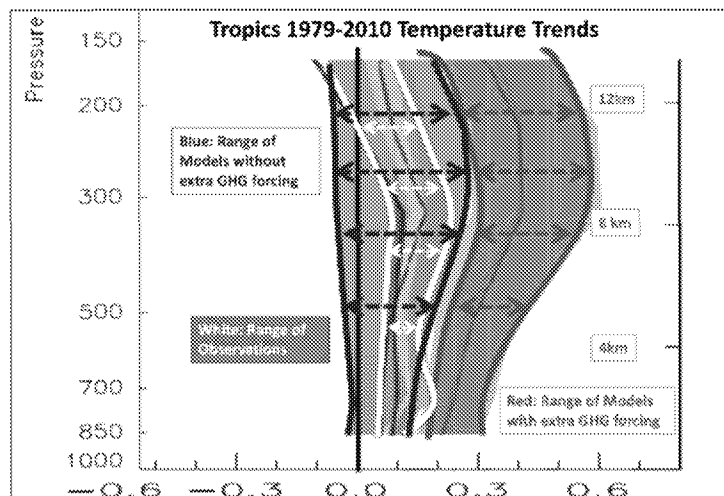


Figure 5.6: Vertical warming pattern for tropics (20S to 20N). Source: Annotated version of IPCC AR5 Figure 10.SM.1

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Figure 5.6 compares model and observational temperature trends by altitude between 20S and 20N (the tropics). In this region where the models say the warming should be strongest, the observations (shown here in white) lie within the blue “No CO₂” band and entirely outside the “with CO₂” red envelope. This means that in the entire tropical atmospheric column from the surface to the base of the stratosphere, observed warming trends are so small as to be consistent with the output of models that have no anthropogenic CO₂, and inconsistent with the entire envelope of warming trends generated by models forced with increased CO₂.

A similar comparison is shown in Christy and McNider (2017), an updated version of which (covering 1979-2024) is reproduced as Figure 5.7. Modeled temperature trends exceed observations from the surface through the top of the troposphere, with observed trends below the entire model range at most pressure levels. Also shown in Figure 5.7 is the tropical tropospheric temperature (TTT) average from three satellite data products (NOAA, UAH and RSS) compared to the same layer average from climate models for 1979-2024. Again, the observed trends lie below the entire model range.

The wide range of choices made by modelers to characterize the physical processes in the models (see Box: Climate Modeling in Section 5.1 above) is seen by the large spread of trends in the middle troposphere, ± 40 percent about the median (Fig. 5.7). This vividly illustrates the uncertainties in attempts to model (parameterize) a complex system involving turbulence, moist thermodynamics, and energy fluxes over the full range of the tropical atmosphere’s time and space scales.

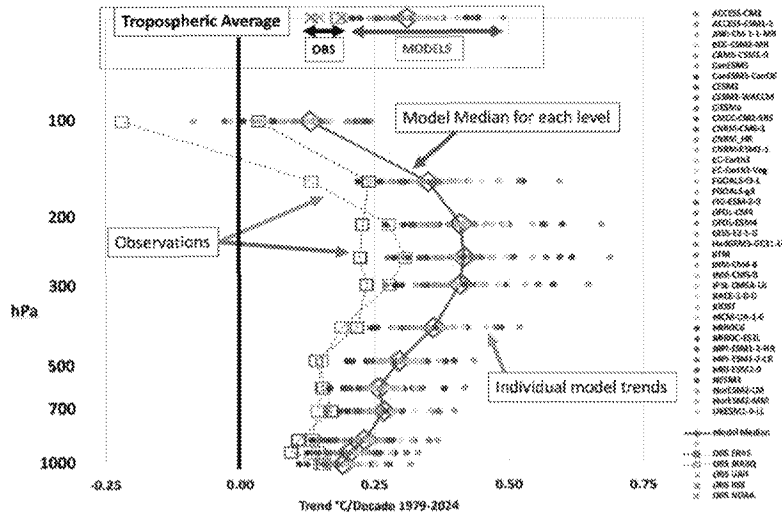


Figure 5.7: Modeled versus observed warming, tropical troposphere. Source: updated from Christy and McNider (2017) including data through 2024 and CMIP6 model outputs. Red line: model average. Green and blue lines: observational series (reanalyses).

This discrepancy has been the source of much controversy, with some arguing that even if there is very little observed warming aloft in the tropics, a “hotspot” still exists in the sense that the warming aloft is greater than at the surface (Santer et al. 2008). But there is good evidence that models also exaggerate the amplification rate. Klotzbach *et al.* (2009), showed that models project greater amplification with altitude than is observed. This result was subsequently confirmed by detailed time series analysis (Vogelsang and Nawaz 2016) which found that the model-observational difference is statistically significant.

The atmosphere’s temperature profile is a case where models are not merely uncertain but also show a common warming bias relative to observations. This suggests that they misrepresent certain fundamental feedback processes.

The IPCC AR6 did not assess this issue.

5.5 Stratospheric cooling

An important element of the expected general “fingerprint” of anthropogenic climate change is simultaneous warming of the troposphere and cooling of the stratosphere. AR6 acknowledged that cooling had been observed but only until the year 2000. The stratosphere has shown some warming since, contrary to model projections.

AR6 WG1 Ch 2 pp. 327-9 states:

Temperatures averaged through the full lower stratosphere (roughly 10–25 km) have decreased over 1980–2019 in all data products, with the bulk of the decrease prior to 2000. The decrease holds even if the influence of the El Chichon (1982) and Pinatubo (1991) volcanic eruptions on the trend,

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found by Steiner *et al.* (2020a) to have increased the 1979–2018 cooling trend by 0.06°C per decade, is removed. Most datasets show no significant or only marginally significant trends over 2000–2019, and the results of Philipona *et al.* (2018) show weak increases over 2000–2015 in the very lowermost stratosphere sampled by radiosondes...

It is virtually certain that the lower stratosphere has cooled since the mid-20th century. However, most datasets show that lower stratospheric temperatures have stabilized since the mid-1990s with no significant change over the last 20 years. It is likely that middle and upper stratospheric temperatures have decreased since 1980, but there is low confidence in the magnitude.

The cited source, Philipona *et al.* (2018), in an article entitled “Radiosondes Show That After Decades of Cooling, the Lower Stratosphere Is Now Warming”, stated:

In response to continued greenhouse gas increases and stratospheric ozone depletion, climate models project continued tropospheric warming and stratospheric cooling over the coming decades. Global average satellite observations of lower stratospheric temperatures exhibit no significant trends since the turn of the century. In contrast, an analysis of vertically resolved radiosonde measurements from 60 stations shows an increase of lower stratospheric temperature since the turn of the century at altitudes between 15 and 30 km and over most continents. Trend estimates are somewhat sensitive to homogeneity assessment choices, but all investigated radiosonde data sets suggest a change from late twentieth century cooling to early 21st century warming in the lower stratosphere.

A combination of tropospheric warming and stratospheric cooling is a commonly cited “fingerprint” of anthropogenic warming. Stratospheric warming since 2000 coincides with continued surface and tropospheric warming, a pattern that is not found in climate model simulations and is not apparently consistent with the anthropogenic fingerprint. Comment about possible role of ozone recovery

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SOMETHING ABOUT NEW SANTER PAPER??? See also

B.D. Santer, S. Po-Chedley, L. Zhao, C. Zou, Q. Fu, S. Solomon, D.W.J. Thompson, C. Mears, & K.E. Taylor, Exceptional stratospheric contribution to human fingerprint on atmospheric temperature, Proc. Natl. Acad. Sci. U.S.A. 120 (2023) e2300758120, <https://doi.org/10.1073/pnas.2300758120> (2023).

5.6 Snow cover mismatch

Data compiled by the Rutgers University Snow Lab show that Northern Hemisphere winter snow cover is not decreasing (Figure 5.8); if anything, it shows an increasing trend.

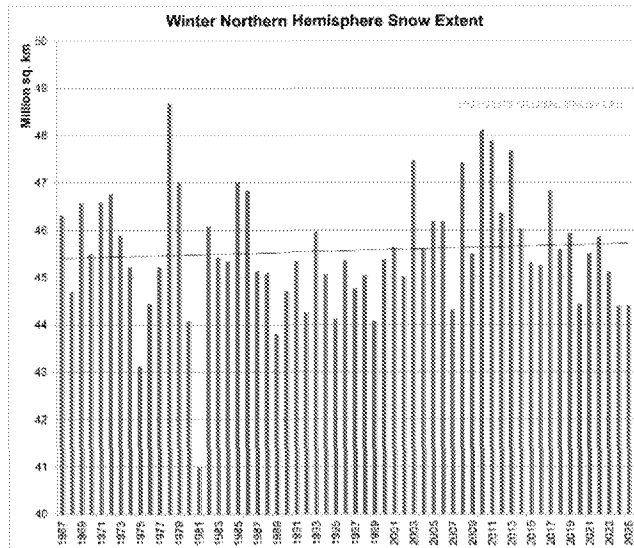


Figure 5.8: Northern Hemisphere Winter Snow extent.

Source: [[HYPERLINK](https://climate.rutgers.edu/snowcover/chart_seasonal.php?ui_set=nhland&ui_season=1)

"https://climate.rutgers.edu/snowcover/chart_seasonal.php?ui_set=nhland&ui_season=1"]
(accessed May 27, 2025)

Yet models project declining Northern Hemisphere snow cover in a warming climate, as described by Connolly *et al.* (2019).

The climate models were found to poorly explain the observed trends [in Northern Hemisphere snow cover]. While the models suggest snow cover should have steadily decreased for all four seasons, only spring and summer exhibited a long-term decrease, and the pattern of the observed decreases for these seasons was quite different from the modelled predictions. Moreover, the observed trends for autumn and winter suggest a long-term increase, although these trends were not statistically significant.

AR6 largely confines its discussion of changing Northern Hemisphere snow cover extent (SCE) to the Spring season, for which models and observations agree on a downward trend. Regarding Winter changes it remarks as follows (AR6 WGI Ch. 2 p. 344):

Assessment of SCE trends in the NH since 1978 indicates that for the October to February period there is substantial uncertainty in trends with the sign dependent on the observational product. Analysis using the NOAA Climate Data Record shows an increase in October to February SCE (Hernández-Henríquez *et al.*, 2015; Kunkel *et al.*, 2016) while analyses based on satellite borne optical sensors (Hori *et al.*, 2017) or multi-observation products (Mudryk *et al.*, 2020) show a negative trend for all seasons.

AR6 WGI Chapter 9 (p. 1284) points out that the NOAA Climate Data Record showing increased fall and winter SCE is inconsistent with land-based observations and model-based data sets. It notes that using optical satellite imagery to infer SCE in winter is challenging due to cloud cover and decreased solar illumination in winter months. Focusing on the Pacific Coast states (CA, OR and WA) cold season mountain snowfall that melts in spring and summer provides a substantial portion of warm season water resources. A comprehensive reconstruction of snowfall for the main source regions (Cascades and Sierra Nevada Mountains) indicates no significant trends in annual totals since the late 19th century (Christy 2022).

In summary, the up-to-date Rutgers SCE database indicates a mismatch between models and observations. Further work to reconcile conflicting trends in observational data sets is required.

5.7 Hemispheric symmetry of the planetary albedo

The planetary albedo is the fraction of incoming solar radiation reflected by the Earth back to space. It is an important element of the radiative energy balance and influences whether the planet will warm or cool over time. The planetary albedo is typically estimated at around 0.30; variations on the scale of 0.01 correspond to changes in solar forcing of about 3 W/m^2 , an amount larger than current anthropogenic forcing. It has long been noted that models disagree with each other and with observations on the value of the global planetary albedo (Stephens *et al.* 2015).

An intriguing property of the Earth's albedo is that, on average, the Northern Hemisphere (NH) and Southern Hemisphere (SH) have had nearly the same albedo, at least throughout the fifty-year satellite record (Stephens *et al.*, 2015). This symmetry is surprising, because the SH has much more ocean than land. Since ocean is less reflective than land, the NH should have higher albedo. Clouds (which are highly reflective) are more common in the NH and so compensate the surface albedo imbalances of the two hemispheres. Datseris and Stephens (2021) show that this cloud compensation comes from the extra-tropical storm tracks of the SH, which are cloudier than those of the NH. While the mechanism for this hemispheric symmetry is unclear, it likely operates on large temporal and spatial scales.

The hemispheric symmetry of the albedo is a simple gross metric for climate models. Rugenstein and Hakuba (2023) defined that metric as the difference between the NH and SH annual mean albedos, expressed as Wm^{-2} of the reflected sunlight, and compiled it for the CMIP6 climate models, as shown in Figure 5.9. Most of the CMIP6 models do not reproduce the small observed asymmetry (about 0.1 Wm^{-2}) and even disagree as to which hemisphere is more reflective. Moreover, the magnitude of the asymmetry ranges up to 5 Wm^{-2} in some models, twice as large as the current anthropogenic forcing (about 2.5 Wm^{-2}).

The significance of unphysical albedo asymmetries in the climate models is not yet fully known. However, other model studies suggest that interhemispheric changes in albedo can alter poleward heat fluxes, meridional temperature gradients, storminess, and differences in hemispheric ocean heat storage. The discrepancy between models and observations further raises issues regarding cloud feedback processes and so more generally diminishes confidence in model projections of the future climate.

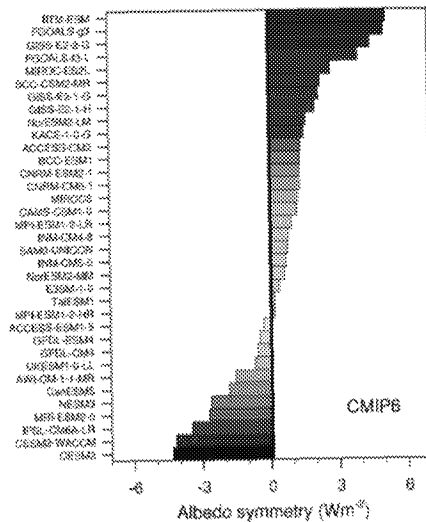


Figure 5.9. Differences in 20-year average reflectivity (albedo) between the Northern and Southern Hemispheres for CMIP6 models used in the most recent IPCC assessment (colored bars). The very small observed difference is indicated by the vertical black line. From Rugenstein and Hakuba (2023).

5.8 U.S. Corn Belt

One of the largest discrepancies between models and observations is in the U.S. Corn Belt, a region of particular importance to global food production. Figure 5.10 shows the warming trends for summertime (June, July, August) for the 12-state Corn Belt (IN, IA, IL, ND, SD, MO, MN, WI, MI, OH, KS, NE) during 1973-2022. All 36 climate models (red) warm far too rapidly compared to observations (blue).

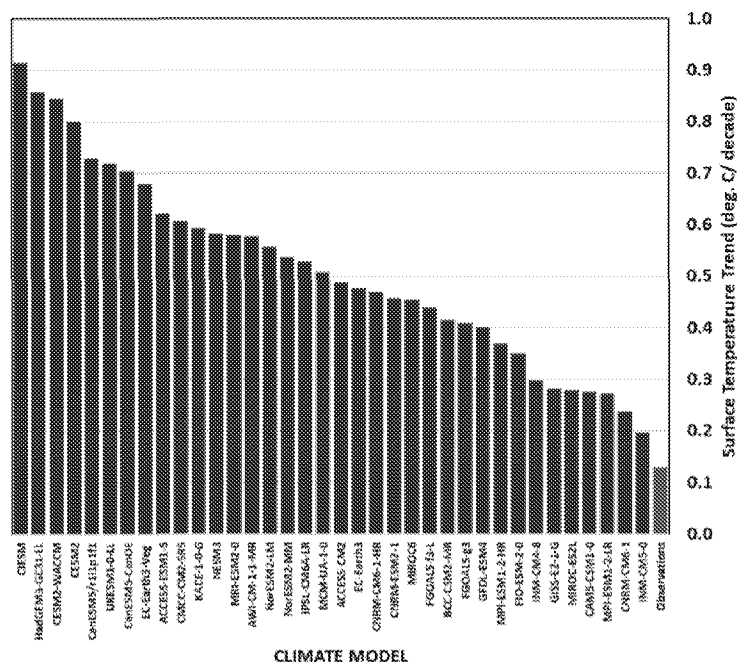


Figure 5.10: Modeled versus observed warming trends in the U.S. Corn Belt, 1973-2022.

As discussed in Chapter 9, the anticipated negative effects of increasing temperatures on U.S. corn yields have not materialized, in contrast to widely publicized studies proclaiming that theoretical future impacts are already being experienced (*e.g.*, Seager *et al.*, 2018).

The IPCC acknowledges limitations in the accuracy of regional climate model outputs. This example shows that users need to assess model projections carefully on a case-by-case basis since local biases might be sufficiently large that the models are simply not fit for purpose. As has recently been noted by two leaders of the modeling community (emphasis added)

... for many key applications that require regional climate model output or for assessing large-scale changes from small scale processes, we believe that **the current generation of models is not fit for purpose.** (Palmer and Stevens 2019)

To summarize:

- Climate models show warming biases in many aspects of their reproduction of the past few decades
- They produce too much warming at the surface (except in the models with lowest ECS), too much warming in the lower-and mid-troposphere and too much amplification of warming aloft
- They also produce too much stratospheric cooling, too much snow loss, and too much warming in the U.S. Corn Belt.

- The hemispheric albedo difference in individual climate models ranges widely in sign and magnitude compared to observations. The range in W/m^2 is three times larger than the direct anthropogenic forcing of CO_2 .
- The IPCC has acknowledged some of these issues but not others.

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6 EXTREME WEATHER

Chapter Summary

Most types of extreme weather exhibit no statistically significant long-term trends over the available historical record. While there has been an increase in hot days in the U.S. since the 1950s, a point emphasized by AR6, numbers are still low relative to the 1920s and 1930s. Extreme convective storms, hurricanes, tornadoes, floods and droughts exhibit considerable natural variability, but long-term increases are not detected. Some increases in extreme precipitation events can be detected in some regions over short intervals but the trends do not persist over long periods and at the regional scale. Wildfires are not more common in the U.S. than they were in the 1980s. Burned area increased from the 1960s to the early 2000's, however it is low compared to the estimated natural baseline level. U.S. wildfire activity is strongly affected by forest management practices.

6.1 Introduction

High impact weather extremes, usually related to temperature, precipitation and/or high wind, can disrupt infrastructure and therefore endanger human health and wellbeing. The issue is not whether extremes occur. Rather, it is whether there are long-term (decadal scale) changes in the frequency or character of extremes (“detection”), as well as the extent to which such changes and the attendant changes in hazards are caused by anthropogenic emissions of greenhouse gases (“attribution”; e.g., AR6 Seneviratne *et al.* 2021).

It is naïve to assume that any recent extreme event is caused by human influences on the climate. Climate is about the statistical properties of weather over decades, not single events. Further, there are only about 130 years of reliable observational records that can be analyzed statistically. That brief interval does not begin to contain all the extreme events that the climate system can create on its own. Over geologic time the climate system has generated an (essentially) infinite variety of weather patterns and extremes that humans have never observed and thus are absent from the databases used to determine extreme statistics [see *Perils of short data records* below]. For that reason, attributing an extreme event unprecedented in the record requires assumptions about the magnitude of natural variations.

This chapter is concerned with detection of trends in extreme weather, while Chapter 8 considers causal attribution, with Section 8.4 specifically addressing extreme weather. If no trend is detected, then clearly there is no basis for attribution. But even where a trend is observed, attribution to human-caused warming does not necessarily follow. Too often process-based reasoning is used without reference to observations...

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This is especially true for precipitation events. The hydrological literature has long noted the phenomenon of Long-Term Persistence (LTP) in rainfall data (Hurst 1951, Cohn and Lins 2005, Markonis and Koutsoyiannis 2016). LTP has a formal mathematical definition, but it can be thought of as the presence of natural variations with strong autocorrelations that result in cycle-like behavior on long time scales. The presence of LTP requires long records to accurately estimate variability. Analysis of records that are short relative to the LTP scale will tend to underestimate variability, therefore overstating the significance of apparent trends and underestimating the likelihood of extreme events (Cohn and Lins 2005).

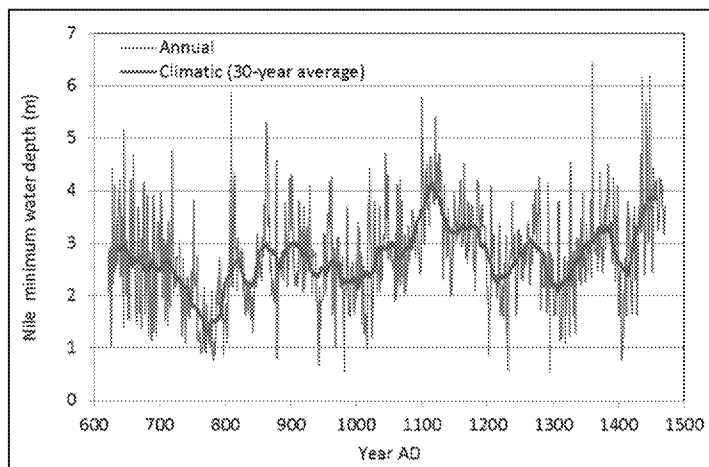


Figure 6.1.1: The annual minimum depth of the Nile River near Cairo over more than 650 years from 622 to 1284 A.D. The data, measured in meters, shows a characteristic pattern of year-to-year fluctuations around longer-term trends. Data from Koutsoyiannis (2013)

A good example of LTP is the eight-century long record of the annual minimum height of the Nile River observed at Roda Island in Cairo shown in Figure 6.1.1. The Nile River is fed by precipitation over a 4 million square mile drainage basin, an area equal to about one third of CONUS. Since human influences on the global climate were negligible before the 20th century, the century-scale variability of the thirty-year average is entirely natural; Egyptians of the seventh and eight centuries would have been incorrect to assume that the worsening drought during that time was the “new normal.”

With these caveats in mind, we examine the evidence for changes in selected weather and climate extremes. A recurring theme is the wide gap between public perceptions and scientific evidence. It has become routine in media coverage, government and private sector discussions, and even in some academic literature to make generalized assertions that extreme weather of all types is getting worse due to GHGs and “climate change.” Yet expert assessments typically have not drawn such sweeping conclusions and instead have emphasized the difficulty both of identifying specific trends and establishing a causal connection with anthropogenic forcing.

In the sections to follow we provide excerpts from various IPCC and NCA assessment reports denoting the sources as follows:

SREX: The IPCC Special Report on Managing the Risks of Extreme Events and Disasters to Advance Climate Change Adaptation (2012)

AR6: The IPCC Sixth Assessment Report Working Group 1 (2021).

NCA4: The U.S. Climate Science Special Report of the Fourth National Climate Assessment (2017) Volume I.

NCA5: The U.S. Climate Science Special Report of the Fifth National Climate Assessment (2023) Volume I.

In the excerpts, *italics* are in the original whereas **boldface** emphasis has been added.

Additionally we present updated data series from standard government sources to provide up-to-date information through 2024 wherever possible.

6.2 Hurricanes and tropical cyclones

AR6 provides the following assessment of tropical cyclones (TCs; used here as a synonym for hurricanes):

AR6: There is *low confidence* in most reported long-term (multidecadal to centennial) trends in TC frequency or intensity-based metrics due to changes in the technology used to collect the best-track data. (IPCC, 2021 p. 1585)

AR6: It is *likely* that the global proportion of major (Category 3–5) tropical cyclone occurrence has increased over the last four decades . . . There is *low confidence* in long-term (multi-decadal to centennial) trends in the frequency of all-category tropical cyclones. (IPCC, 2023 SPM p. 9)

AR6: A subset of the best-track data corresponding to hurricanes that have directly impacted the United States since 1900 is considered to be reliable, and shows **no trend in the frequency of U.S. landfall events**. (IPCC 2021 p. 1585)

Since 1980, when satellite observations first fully covered the global oceans, we have confidence in the numbers of total global hurricanes and major hurricanes (Category 3 and higher). Figure 6.2.1 shows that on average, each year there are about 50 hurricanes, with about 25 reaching major hurricane status (Maue, 2025). There is substantial year-to-year and decadal variability, a weak decrease in the number of hurricanes, and a slight but insignificant increase in the number of major hurricanes. These two trends combine to create an overall increase in the proportion of major hurricanes.

Global hurricane statistics are dominated by the Northwest Pacific Ocean, which accounts for ~35 percent of total global hurricanes, whereas the Atlantic accounts for ~15 percent of global hurricanes (Colorado State University, 2025). Data in the Atlantic basin extends further back than in the other ocean basins and is most relevant to U.S. policy makers.

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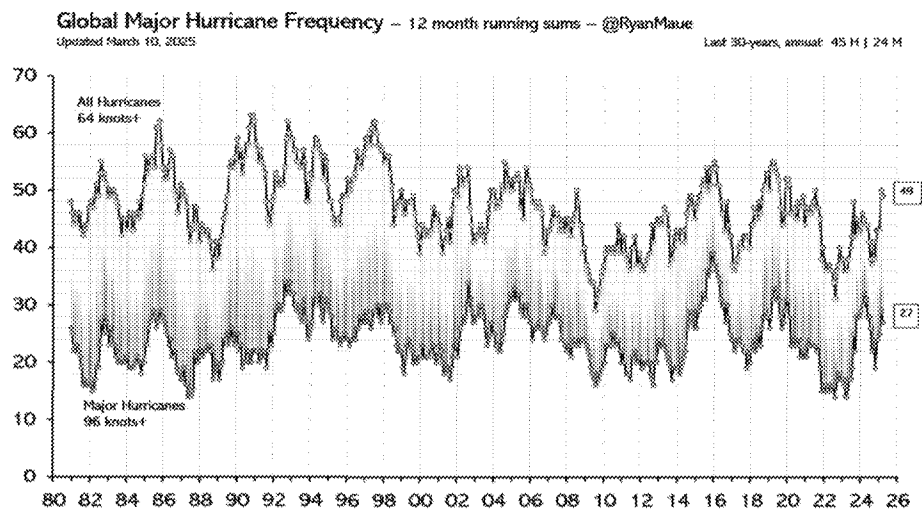


Figure 6.2.1: Global frequency of hurricanes and major hurricanes since 1980. Source: Updated from Maue 2009, 2011.

Figure 6.2.2 shows the frequency of Atlantic hurricanes and major hurricanes (Category 3 and higher) back to 1920. Data prior to 1965 (the onset of satellite observations in the Atlantic, shaded in blue) shows some undercounting, with data prior to 1920 showing substantial undercounting (Vecchi and Knutson, 2011). All measures of Atlantic hurricane activity show a significant increase since 1970. However, the period from 1971-1994 saw exceptionally low activity, with high activity (comparable to the past two decades, even with undercounting) also observed during the 1950's and 1960's, and even in the 1930's.

Statement about process-based reasoning

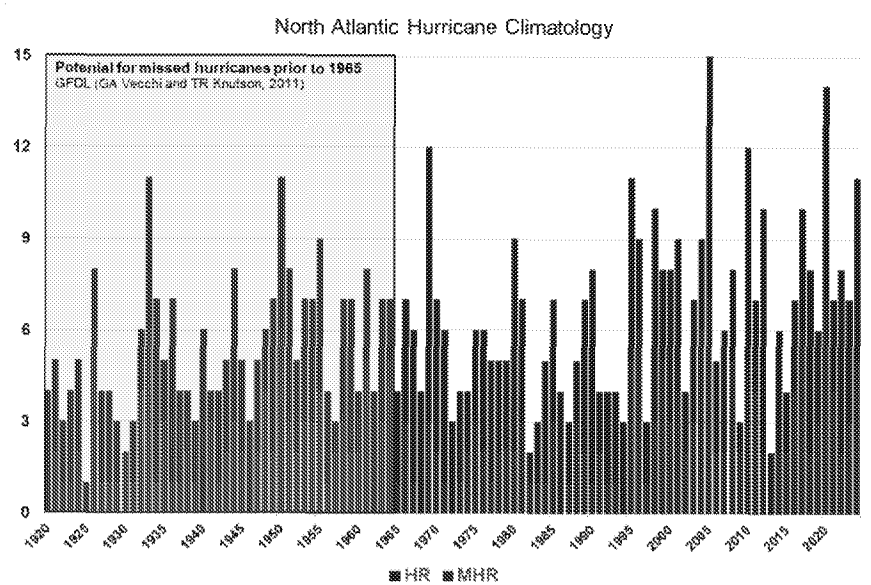


Figure 6.2.2: Atlantic frequency of hurricanes (HR) and major hurricanes (MHR) since 1920. Source: National Hurricane Center (2024)

Figure 6.2.2 shows that Atlantic hurricanes vary strongly on decadal and multidecadal time scales. These variations are associated primarily with the Atlantic Multidecadal Oscillation (AMO), which is manifest in basin-wide sea surface temperature and sea level pressure fluctuations connected to large scale ocean circulation patterns. The AMO was in its warm phase during 1926-1970 and 1995-present, but in its cool phase during 1971-1994. It has its greatest impact on the number of major hurricanes (Category 3+), identified by Goldenberg *et al.* (2001) as associated with above normal SSTs and decreased vertical shear in the AMO warm phase (see also Bell and Chelliah, 2006; Klotzbach *et al.*, 2018).

Klotzbach *et al.* (2018) conducted a comprehensive evaluation of the landfalling hurricane data for the Continental U.S. since 1900. Figure 6.2.3 updates their analysis through 2024. While the largest numbers of landfalling hurricanes are from 2004, 2005 and 2020, there is no statistically significant trend since 1920. Figure 6.2.3 also shows the time series for major hurricane landfalls (Category 3-5). The largest year in the record is 2005, with 4 major hurricane landfalls. However, following 2005 there were no major hurricanes striking the U.S. through 2016, the longest such period since 1920.

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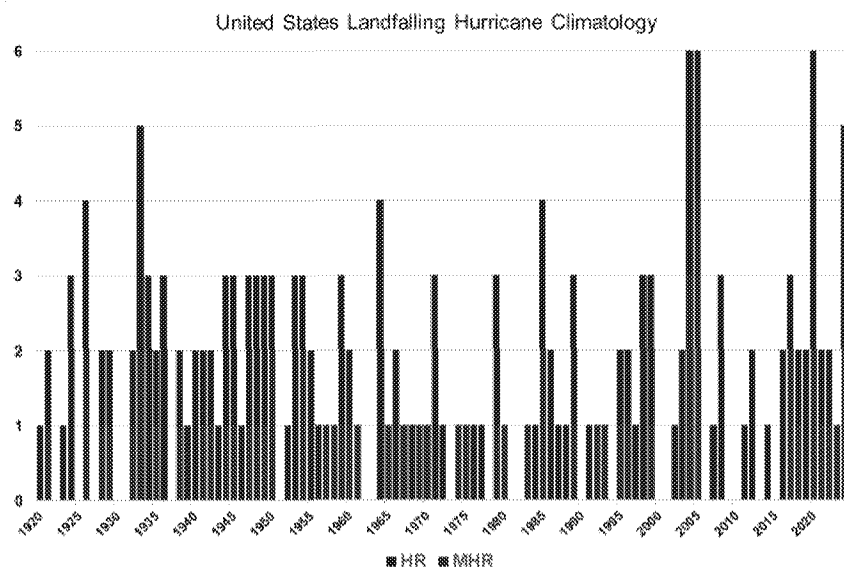


Figure 6.2.3: U.S. landfalling frequency of hurricanes (HR) and major hurricanes (MHR) since 1920. Source NOAA HRD(a) (2024)

Figure 6.2.3 shows substantial interannual to multidecadal variability in U.S. landfall activity. Klotzbach *et al.* (2018) examined how the landfall counts vary with ENSO (El Niño versus La Niña) and the warm versus cold phases of the Atlantic Multidecadal Oscillation (AMO).

Villarini *et al.* (2012) provide an analysis of U.S. hurricane landfalls back to 1878. While it is possible that some landfalls were missed in the late 19th century owing to sparsely populated regions on the Gulf Coast, it is remarkable that the highest year in the entire record is 1886, with 7 hurricane landfalls, when human influences on the climate were much smaller than they are today.

Table 6.2.1 shows the 10 strongest hurricanes (plus ties) to make U.S. landfall. Of the hurricanes that have made landfall with sustained winds greater than 150 mph, only one has occurred in the 21st century.

In summary, analyses of both global and regional variability and trends of hurricane activity provide the basis for detecting changes and understanding their causes. The relatively short historical record of hurricane activity, and the even shorter record from the satellite era, is not sufficient to assess whether recent hurricane activity is unusual relative to the background natural variability.- Atlantic hurricane processes are influenced substantially by the natural modes of ocean circulation variability in the Atlantic, notably the Atlantic Multidecadal Oscillation. While it has long been hypothesized that a rising global sea surface temperature would cause an increase in hurricane intensity, identification of any significant trend in the hurricane data is hampered by a short data record and substantial natural variability.

Rank	Year	Landfall Wind (MPH)	Name
1	1935	185	"Labor Day"
2	1969	175	Camille
3	1992	165	Andrew
4	2018	160	Michael
5	1856	150	"Last Island"
5	1886	150	"Indianola"
5	1919	150	-----
5	1932	150	"Freeport"
5	2004	150	Charley
5	2020	150	Laura
5	2021	150	Ida
5	2022	150	Ian

Table 6.2.1 Strongest hurricanes to make landfall along the U.S. coast. Source (NOAA HRD(b), 2024)

6.3 Temperature extremes

The AR6 assessment focused on the period after 1950 and reported increasing trends in heatwave frequency and intensity. However, NCA4 noted that heatwave activity in the U.S. reached a peak in the 1930s (Figure 6.3.1).

AR6: It is *virtually certain* that hot extremes (including heatwaves) have become more frequent and more intense across most land regions since the 1950s, while cold extremes (including cold waves) have become less frequent and less severe (SPM, A3.1)

AR6: In North America, there is very robust evidence for a *very likely* increase in the intensity and frequency of hot extremes and decrease in the intensity and frequency of cold extremes for the whole continent, though there are substantial spatial and seasonal variations in the trends. Minimum temperatures display warming consistently across the continent, while there are more contrasting trends in the annual maximum daily temperatures in parts of the USA. (Chapter 11, p 1550)

NCA4: Changes in warm extremes are more nuanced than changes in cold extremes. For instance, the warmest daily temperature of the year **increased** in some parts of the West over the past century, but there were **decreases** in almost all locations east of the Rocky Mountains. In fact, all eastern regions experienced a net **decrease**, most notably the Midwest (about 2.2°F [1.2°C]) and the Southeast (roughly 1.5°F [0.8°C]). (pp. 190-191)

NCA4: Since the mid-1960s, there has been only a very slight increase in the warmest daily temperature of the year (amidst large interannual variability). Heat waves (6-day periods with a maximum temperature above the 90th percentile for 1961–1990) increased in frequency until the mid-1930s, became considerably less common through the mid-1960s, and increased in frequency again thereafter. As with warm daily temperatures, **heat wave magnitude reached a maximum in the 1930s.** (pp. 190-191)

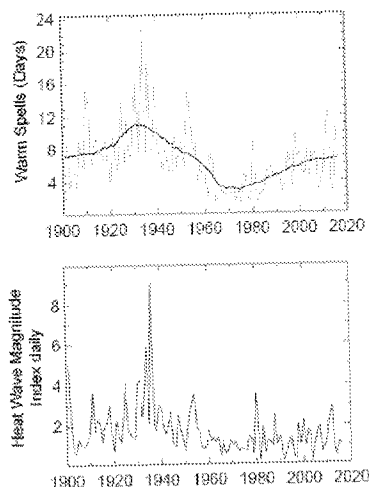


Figure 6.3.1: U.S. Heat waves since 1900. Source: NCA4 Figure 6.4

6.3.1 Temperatures in the U.S. are becoming less extreme

Daily maximum temperatures in the warm season (T max, May-Sep) and daily minimum temperatures in the cold season (T min, Dec-Mar) are available beginning in Dec 1898 (126 years). The dataset consists of 1,211 CONUS stations designated as United States Historical Climate Network or USHCN stations (see Figure 6.3.2; Quinlan *et al.* 1987, Karl *et al.* 1990). These stations were selected by NOAA as having the fewest problematic issues with gaps, station moves, and instrument changes. Where gaps still exist, nearby stations (bias-corrected) were merged so that the median volume of data available for a station is 98%. Although there are certainly errors in the dataset, including unresolved spurious warming due to UHI effects that especially bias T min records, this data set is sufficiently accurate for assessing trends in T max heat extremes.

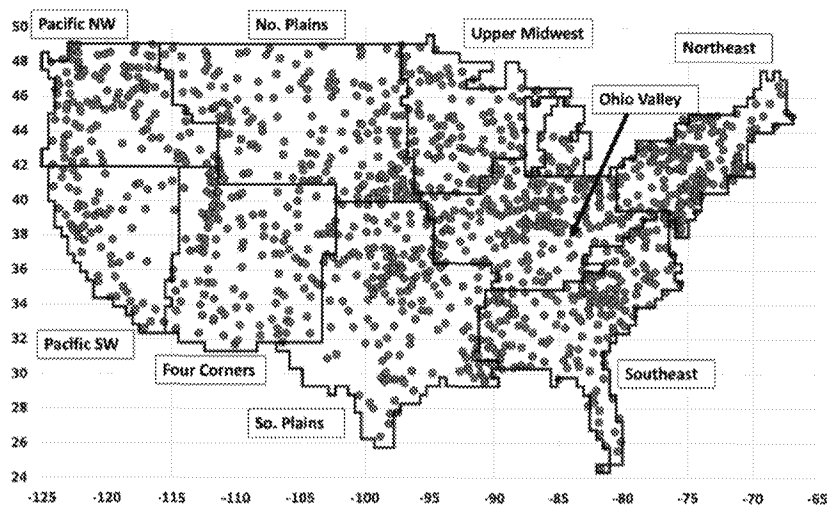


Figure 6.3.2 Locations of USHCN temperature stations. Source: USHCN.

We begin with the question of whether the occurrence of daily record high or low temperatures has changed since Dec 1898. Each warm-season has 153 days (1 May to 30 Sep) and each cold-season has 122 days (1 Dec to 31 Mar). For each station and day, we calculated the year in which the record highest (lowest) temperature occurred. With 126 years of observations, if there were no temperature trends over time, the expected number of records for Tmax would be 1.21 ($=153/126$) per station per year and for Tmin 0.96 ($=122/126$) per station per year.

Figure 6.3.3 shows the observed distribution in time of the occurrence of these extreme events. There is a common feature in many metrics of warm-season extremes in the CONUS - the exceptional heat of the 1920s and especially the 1930s, peaking in 1936. On a per-station average, 60 percent of the Tmax records and 59 percent of the Tmin records occurred in the first half of the period (1899-1961).

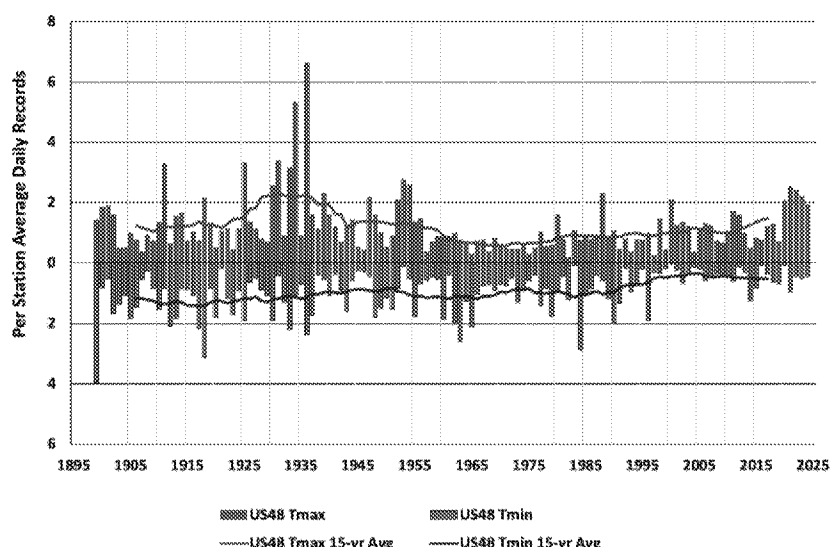


Figure 6.3.3 Number of daily record High (red) and Low (blue) temperatures for warm and cold seasons in the CONUS. The lines represent the 15-year running, centered average. Source: 1,211 USHCN stations supplemented as needed to achieve a minimum of 92 percent of observations in the 126-year period since Dec 1898. US48: contiguous U.S. states. Tmax: maximum temperature. Tmin: minimum temperature.

On the cold side, the Valentine's Day Arctic outbreak in Feb 1899 stands as the most extensive cold extreme experienced by CONUS, with 1917 in 2nd place. The frequency of cold records has declined, especially over the last quarter of the period in which only 13 percent of the extreme cold events were measured. In contrast, 25 percent of the extreme Tmax records were achieved in the last quarter, in accordance with statistical expectations. These general features have been noted in past assessments (see above, IPCC AR6, NCA4). Combining the two histories, the overall reduction in numbers of both cold and hot extremes over the past century indicates a climate less prone to extremes.

This pattern is also shown in Figure 6.3.4. For each station and for each year the hottest warm season and coldest cold-season temperatures were calculated. Then the differences between these were computed by station and geographically-averaged over all stations, thus yielding an annual measure of the expected range of local extreme temperatures for each year. Figure 6.3.4 shows the 15-year trailing average of this measure, which has clearly declined over the past century.

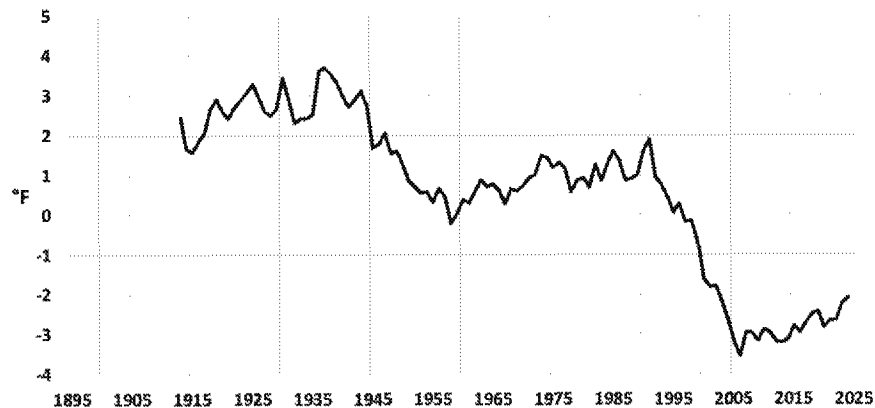


Figure 6.3.4. 15-year trailing average of the difference each year of each station's hottest warm-season Tmax and coldest cold-season Tmin relative to the long-term average. Source: Author analysis of USHCN data.

The average difference for each station between the hottest summer Tmax and coldest winter Tmin has declined by about 5°F in the past 126 years. The decline is due mostly to warmer winter Tmin, but a decline in summer Tmax is also a factor. The rise in Tmin has been strongly related to the growing presence of manufactured surfaces around the weather stations over the last 100+ years (the so-called urban heat island effect; Section 3.3 and Spencer *et al.* 2025). Need to add citations

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In summary, while temperature extremes are regularly experienced in the U.S. and attract a great deal of media attention, long term records show the U.S. climate has become less extreme over time (milder) when measured by the range between warm season maxima and cold season minima.

6.3.2 Exceedances of a heat threshold

Under the heading of “The Risk of Temperature Extremes is Changing”, the most recent U.S. National Climate Assessment report (NCA5) notes the increase in a threshold metric of number of days at or above 95°F, stating,

The western U.S. has been particularly affected by extreme heat since the 1980s ..., experiencing a larger increase in days over 95°F, as would be expected given the greater warming in that region relative to the eastern US. Several major heatwaves have affected the U.S. since 2018, including a record-shattering event in the Pacific Northwest in 2021.

Are the occurrences of 95°F days changing? In a climate as varied as that of CONUS, threshold statistics can be misleading. A region with many stations that have near 95°F Tmax average temperatures in the summer might see large swings in the metric when only small changes in average temperature occur. Elsewhere with stations that either rarely or virtually always achieve 95°F Tmax temperatures, a small change will not have much impact on the results.

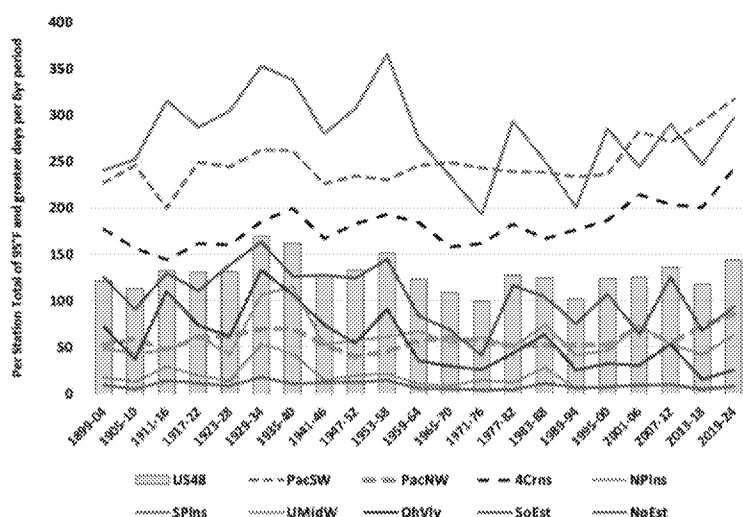


Figure 6.3.5. Total number of days $\geq 95^{\circ}\text{F}$ in 6-yr periods, U.S. 48 (bars) and regions (lines). A 6-year period is used as this evenly divides the 126-year record. Results are robust to using periods from 2 to 11 years. US48: contiguous U.S. states. See Figure 6.3.2 for region names. Source: Author analysis of USHCN data.

In the past 126 years, the average CONUS station experienced 129 days exceeding 95°C per 6-yr period, but the regional values range from 278 in the Southern Plains to 9 in the Northeast. Thus, such threshold analyses must be interpreted with caution. Figure 6.3.5 shows that only three of the nine regions, all in the West, have experienced upward trends in the number of 95°F or hotter days (dashed lines). The CONUS as a whole has not, and the other six regions have experienced declines.

The Pacific NW heatwave of 2021 referenced in the NCA5 quote will be examined more closely in Section 8.6.1. The evidence indicates that it was a single, unprecedented event in the record, not part of a pattern of increasing extreme heat. For example, the 5-day average tropospheric grid-point temperature anomaly over the Pacific NW during that event was $+10.8^{\circ}\text{C}$, the most extreme Northern Hemisphere grid point summer anomaly in the 46 years from over 4 million grid values. In contrast, the global temperature anomaly during that time was virtually zero ($+0.03^{\circ}\text{C}$, Mass *et al.* 2024).

The NCA5 heading “The Risk of Temperature Extremes is Changing” suggests pervasive positive trends are now being observed in threshold temperatures, but that is not evident in the figures above.

6.3.3 Heatwaves

Heatwaves (consecutive days that exceed an extreme threshold) have a greater societal impact than a single daily record temperature. We measure “Heatwave Days” here as the count of all days in May-Sep each year that exceed the 90th percentile for that day and that lie within a period of at least six consecutive days. This is equivalent to the method used in NCA4, except that the reference period here is the entire record 1899-2024 while NCA4 truncated the reference period to 1961-1990, which was a cool interval. (The pattern of results shown below does not depend on the choice of reference period.) That truncation

boosts positive results (days exceeding the 90th percentile) in years warmer than the reference period, especially starting in 1960 and moving to the present (see Figure 6.3.6 and discussion below).

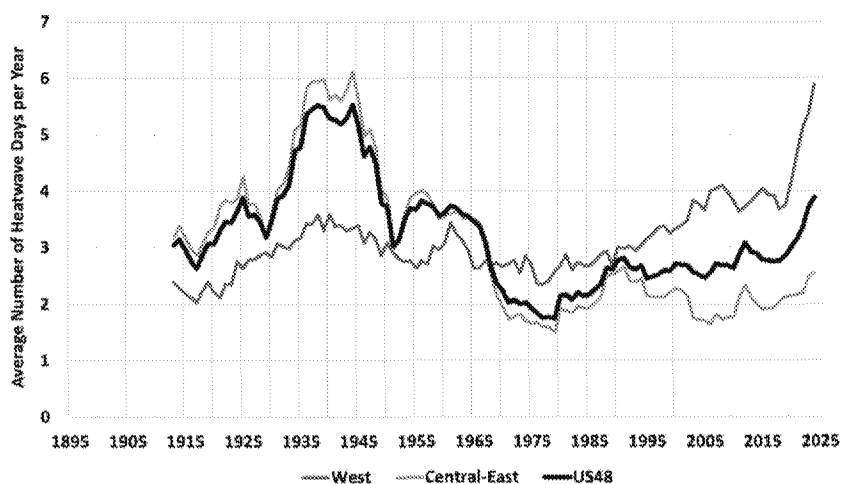


Figure 6.3.6 15-year trailing average of number of heatwave days per year per station in the CONUS (blackline) and two regions: West (red), Central-east (green).

Figure 6.3.6 indicates that there are regional variations in heatwave activity. The excessive heat of the first half of the 20th century occurred primarily in the eastern two-thirds of the nation, while the West has seen a recent increase of heatwave days (NCA5). This indicates that the background warm season circulation favored heatwaves in the eastern portions of the country in the first half of the 20th century, but in the 21st century the patterns have favored heatwaves in the West. For CONUS as a whole, heatwaves are no more common today than they were a century ago, consistent with the upper panel of our Figure 6.4.1 taken from NCA4.

This metric varies significantly with region. The four northern regions (Pacific NW, Northern Plains, Upper Midwest, and Northeast) on average experience 15 to 27 heatwave days per 15-year period. In contrast, the five southern regions (Pacific Southwest, 4-Corners, Southern Plains, Ohio Valley and Southeast) see 37 to 54 such days, essentially twice as many. This suggests the summer circulation pattern is more prone to stationary events in the southern regions while transient systems in the northern regions are more common and thus cut short these potentially longer events.

The analysis of heatwaves is an example of why it is important to consider complete datasets and appropriate metrics. The NCA5 directs readers to the website [[HYPERLINK "https://www.globalchange.gov/indicators/heat-waves"](https://www.globalchange.gov/indicators/heat-waves)] (USGCRP 2023) to view a figure showing the number of urban heatwaves by decade from the 1960s, which we reproduce as Figure 6.3.7.

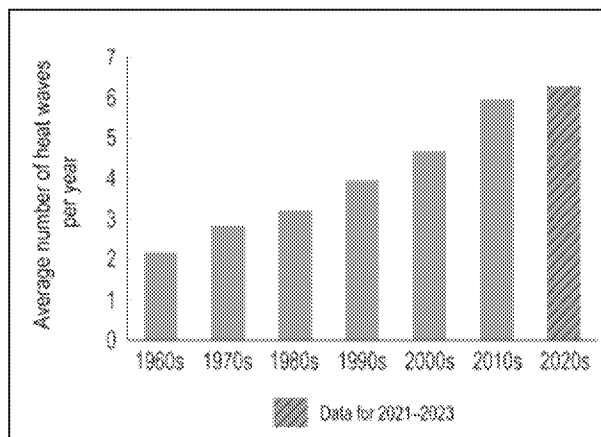


Figure 6.3.7: Average number of urban heatwaves per year for 50 large U.S. metropolitan areas a misleading metric for reasons explained in the text. From [[HYPERLINK "https://www.globalchange.gov/indicators/heat-waves"](https://www.globalchange.gov/indicators/heat-waves)] (accessed May 22, 2025).

The figure shows a monotonic increase in each decade from two occurrences per year in the 1960s to six in the 2020s. The definition of a heatwave used is an unusual but practical measure of human discomfort - a period of at least 2 consecutive days when the *minimum* apparent temperature (combination of temperature and humidity) exceeds the 85th percentile. Note too, the dataset is limited to the 50 largest U.S. cities.

Given the unusual heatwave definition and urban focus, these increasing values since 1960 presented in USGCRP (2023) are not informative about long term trends or the influence of GHG emissions for at least two reasons. First, as shown in Figures 6.3.1 and 6.3.6, the 1960s was the coldest decade and 1970s the second coldest decade since the 1910's, so this starting date preconditions the time series to show increases. Second, post-1960 urbanization in these cities is a major factor in the rise of T_{min} relative to co-located T_{max} and relative to T_{min} at nearby rural stations. This does not dismiss the real rise in nighttime temperatures in major U. S. cities and the societal impacts associated with these changes. However, we note for a variety of reasons that summer T_{max} (especially in rural areas) is a better metric for detecting changes in heatwaves influenced by changes in the background climate due, for example, to increasing GHGs (Christy *et al.* 2009). Need to add citations For CONUS as a whole, the evidence in this section suggests GHG emissions have had little-to-no effect on heatwaves against the background of urbanization and natural climate variability. Irrespective of the ultimate cause of regional trends, heatwaves have important effects on society which must be addressed, as we discuss in Chapter 10.

6.4 Extreme precipitation

AR6 assessed that an increase in heavy precipitation has been observed in data starting in the 1950s.

AR6: The frequency and intensity of **heavy precipitation events have increased** since the 1950s over most land area for which observational data are sufficient for trend analysis (high confidence). (SPM A3.2)

AR6: In North America, there is robust evidence that the **magnitude and intensity of extreme precipitation has very likely increased** since the 1950s. Both [one-day maxima] and [5-day maxima] have significantly increased in North America during 1950-2018. (Chapter 11, p. 1560)

The U.S. National Climate Assessments (NCA4, NCA5) have highlighted an increase in the occurrence of the heaviest precipitation events (defined in different ways) primarily in the eastern half of CONUS, especially the Northeast, when starting the analysis in either 1901 or 1958. Interestingly, the regional variations indicate that the largest increases in extreme precipitation events are in the Northeast and the smallest in the West, a pattern counter to the changes in temperature extremes (Figure 6.3.6).

McKittrick and Christy (2019) examined long-term and consistent station observations of extreme daily precipitation to test some of these NCA claims for the Southeast and West Coast using a trend model with a non-parametric variance estimator robust to the complex autocorrelation properties of precipitation data. When the time series were extended back in time (as far as 1872 in some cases) or started later (1978), there were no significant trends for either region.

These findings have been updated for this report (McKittrick and Christy 2025) with similarly constructed observations from 29 stations on the CONUS Pacific Coast (1893ff from San Diego CA to Blaine WA) and 24 stations in the humid Southeast (1872ff from Austin TX to Washington DC), also adding 27 stations in the Northeast (1888ff from Buffalo NY to Eastport ME). The locations are shown in Figure 6.4.1. The stations were selected based on availability of long-term high-quality records. The regions are each associated with important features of extreme precipitation behavior: the Pacific coast is associated with landfalling atmospheric rivers for which AR6 cites evidence of increasing activity since 1948 with further increases expected as the world warms (AR6 8.3.2.8.2); the NCA report indicates that the Northeast has experienced the greatest increase in extreme events, and the Southeast is also a place noted in the NCAs as having increased extreme events.

The results of applying the analysis of McKittrick and Christy (2019) were as follows for each region, then followed by further explanation.

Pacific Coast heavy rainfall events

- The average precipitation trend is statistically significant (downwards) in Astoria OR; insignificant elsewhere.
- The trend in rainfall variance is positive and significant in Big Sur CA; insignificant elsewhere.
- The trend in daily maximum precipitation is positive and significant in Aberdeen WA and Big Sur CA and negative and significant in Newport OR (insignificant elsewhere).
- Averaged over all stations in the region, none of these three trend parameters is statistically significant.

The Pacific Coast receives considerable precipitation from Atmospheric River (AR) events which often last more than a day or two (e.g., Gershunov *et al.* 2017, Pan *et al.* 2024). The worst series of such events in recent history was the so-called ARkStorm that occurred during December 1861 and January 1862; it dumped nearly 10 feet of rain in parts of California and submerged the entire Central Valley for weeks under as much as 15 feet of water (Brewer 1930, Null and Hulbert 2007). Additionally, Paleoclimate research has found six megastorms more severe than 1861–1862 in California during the last 1800 years, occurring at intervals of 300 years or so (Porter *et al.* 2011).

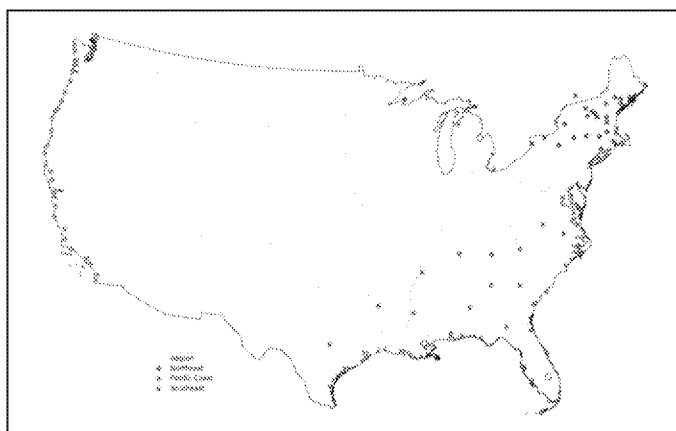


Figure 6.4.1: Locations of precipitation monitoring stations used in this report. Orange: Pacific coast. Blue: Northeast. Green: Southeast. Data from McKittrick and Christy (2025).

We examine occurrences of 5-day deluges as follows. Taking the Pacific coast as an example, a 130-year span contains 26 5-year intervals. At each location we computed the 5-day precipitation totals throughout the year and selected the 26 highest values across the sample. A single year might have more than one of the 26 heaviest. Each of those can be thought of as 1-in-5yr events. If there are no trends in precipitation, then the total number of these events across all stations should be evenly spread over the years. In Fig. 6.4.2 we show the distribution in time of these events for the Pacific coast. The deluges associated with the massive 1997-98 El Niño event are readily apparent. While erratic, as is typical of such precipitation metrics, there is no indication of a tendency to become more frequent over time.

Southeast heavy rainfall events

- The trend in average precipitation is positive and statistically significant in Mobile AL and Quitman GA but insignificant elsewhere.
- The trend in rainfall variance is positive and significant in Mobile AL but insignificant elsewhere.
- The trend in daily maximum precipitation is positive and significant in Vicksburg MS and Norfolk VA but insignificant elsewhere.
- Averaged over all stations in the region none of these three trend parameters is statistically significant

Figure 6.4.3 is analogous to Figure 6.4.2 for the last 150 years in the Southeast humid zone. The temporal pattern of 5-day totals of the 1-in-5yr heavy events is generally unremarkable, though a cluster of higher values appears in 1995 to 2019. The increase in those years is due largely to the 4 northeastern-most stations of Wilmington NC, Weldon NC, Washington DC, and Norfolk VA. This confirms the pattern indicated in NCA4 and NCA5 -- an increasing frequency of heavy events due to a temporal clustering of tropical storms from eastern NC to Maine discussed below. Otherwise, the remaining 20 stations show an unremarkable temporal distribution of heavy events.

BOX: Perils of short data records

San Francisco provides a good case study of the limitation of using short historical samples to characterize natural variability of extreme events. Suppose we use a 130-year sample of daily San Francisco precipitation from 1895 to 2024 and we look for 3-day, 5-day, 14-day and 30-day rainfall records. The results are as shown in Table 7.2.

Event	Record (inches)	Year
3-day	6.94	2023
5-day	8.55	2023
14-day	12.62	2023
30-day	18.93	1998

Table 6.2: Extreme rainfall records, San Francisco, 1895-2024.

The records all cluster in the more recent years. 2023 appears to be an exceptional year and since it is near the end of the sample, it might suggest that the climate has shifted into a more hazardous state, perhaps because of human influences. [Note “2023” indicates the event occurred in the water-year of Aug 2022 to Jul 2023.]

But the picture is very different if we use a sample that begins 45 years earlier, in 1850. Table 6.3 shows that the record-setting events all happened in the 1860s. Furthermore 2023 is now not even in 2nd place but falls to 3rd or 4th place. And comparing the records of the two charts shows the extreme precipitation events in 1862 and 1867 involved considerably more rainfall than the 1998 and 2023 events, with 14- and 30-day totals about 50 percent higher.

Event	Record (inches)	Year	Rank of 130-yr extreme listed in Table 6.2
3-day	8.85	1867	3
5-day	9.80	1867	3
14-day	19.05	1862	4
30-day	28.25	1862	2

Table 6.3: Extreme rainfall records, San Francisco, 1850-2024.

The range of natural variability is made even more remarkable when paleoclimate evidence is examined. Porter *et al.* (2011) discovered that in the past 1,800 years at least six megastorms were more intense than the devastating 1861-62 ARkStorm that struck the region. Evidently such extreme events, “unprecedented” in our 1895-2024 sample, have impacted the region about every 300 years, though not since 1895.

This example illustrates the limitations of using relatively short climate periods (~130 years) to assess the character and range of natural variability in general and of extreme events in particular. Accurate representation of the full range of natural variability is necessary for any attribution analyses (Section 8.6). Infrastructure planners, emergency management institutions and attribution scientists would understand the significant mischaracterization of the magnitude of a future extreme if based only on the last 130 years. In this case, a single time-sample of 130 years provides an underestimation of the extreme value by up to 50 percent determined when adding only 45 more years of observations. Compared to millennial-scale paleoclimate evidence, an even greater underestimation would occur. An important lesson is that the climate can deliver great surprises on its own, even without human influences.

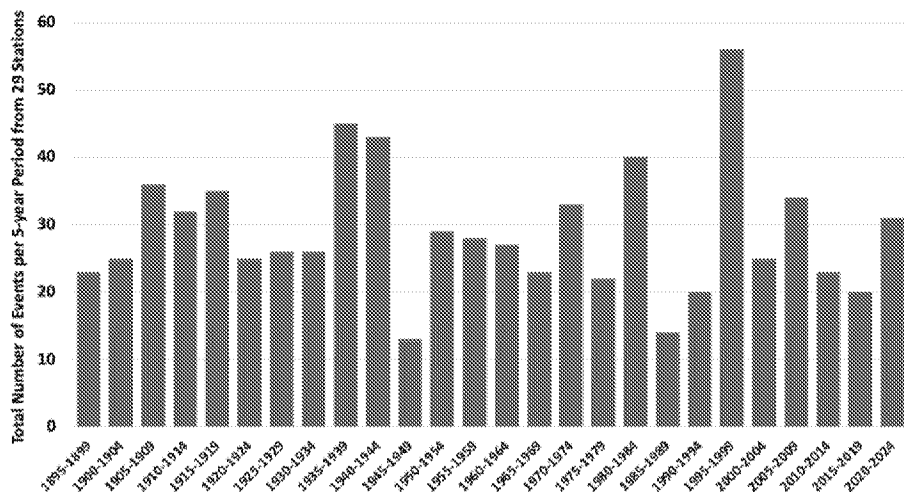


Figure 6.4.2. The time distribution by 5-year periods of the 26 heaviest (1-in-5 yr) occurrences for 29 stations on the Pacific coast.

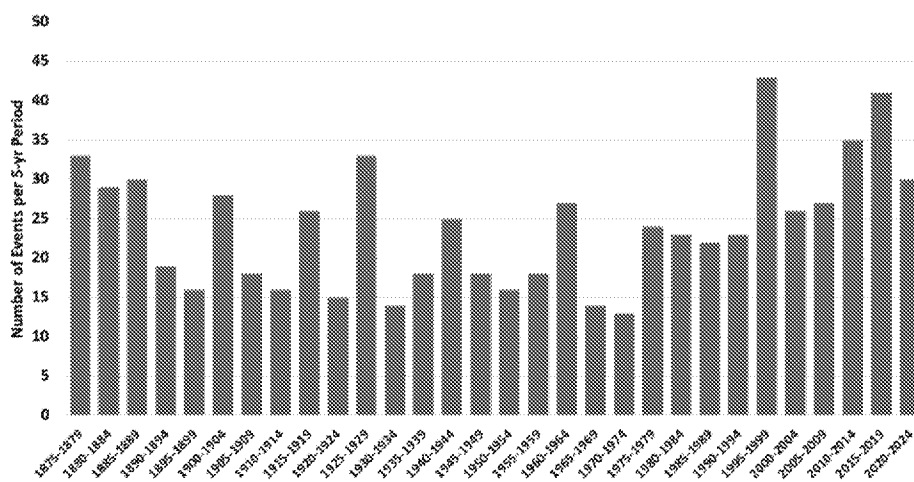


Figure 6.4.3. As in Fig. 6.4.2 but for the heaviest 30 (1-in-5yr) events for 24 stations in the humid Southeast from Austin TX to Washington DC in 5-year bins for 1875-2024.

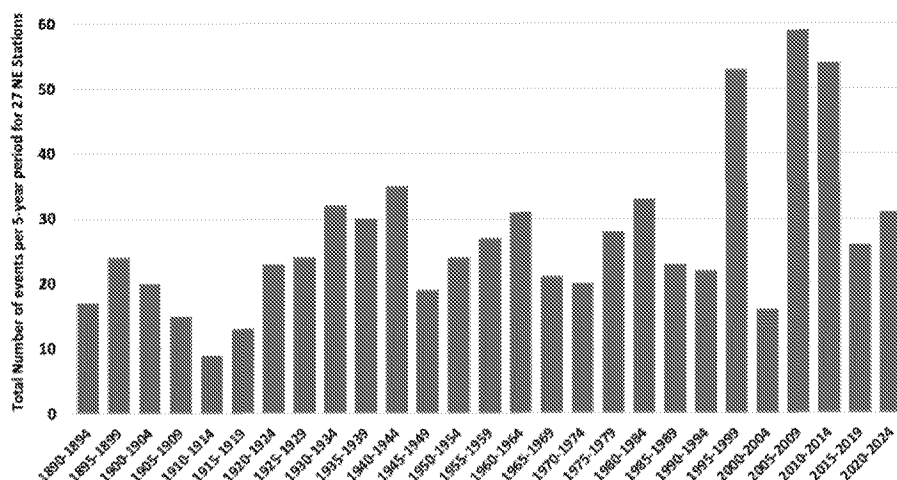


Figure 6.4.4. As in Fig. 6.4.2 but for the heaviest 27 (1-in-5yr) 3-day precipitation events for 27 Northeast stations from NY to ME, including Montreal.

Northeast heavy rainfall events

- The trend in average precipitation is positive and statistically significant in 12 of 27 locations and also in the regional average.
- The trend in rainfall variance is positive and significant in Portland ME, Albany NY, Buffalo NY and Eastport ME but insignificant elsewhere.
- The trend in daily maximum precipitation is positive and significant in Portland ME, Gardiner ME and Eastport ME but insignificant elsewhere.
- When averaged over all stations in the region, there is no statistically significant trend in either the precipitation variance or maximum

Fig. 6.4.4 is analogous to Figure 6.4.2 for the last 135 years in 27 stations in the Northeast (including Montreal Canada). We use 3-day totals here as this produced the largest temporal variations in time. In this region, 77 percent of events occur during June to October and are dominated by incursions of hurricanes, tropical storms, or tropical storms that transition to extratropical systems. According to NCA4 and NCA5 this region experienced the largest increases in extreme events, so it merits a closer examination.

There is a noticeable clustering of extreme events from 1995 to 2014. Howarth *et al.* (2019) examined a similar region as in Fig. 6.4.4 that includes PA and NJ and reported significant differences in various precipitation extremes between two 18-year periods, 1979-96 and 1997-2014. That included a 317 percent increase in 24-hr events exceeding 6 inches, while we find a 58 percent increase over the same years. However, Figure 6.4.4 shows that frequency drops sharply after 2014, returning to the long-term average in the subsequent 5-year intervals, again illustrating the perils of drawing conclusions from short-term trends in highly variable metrics.

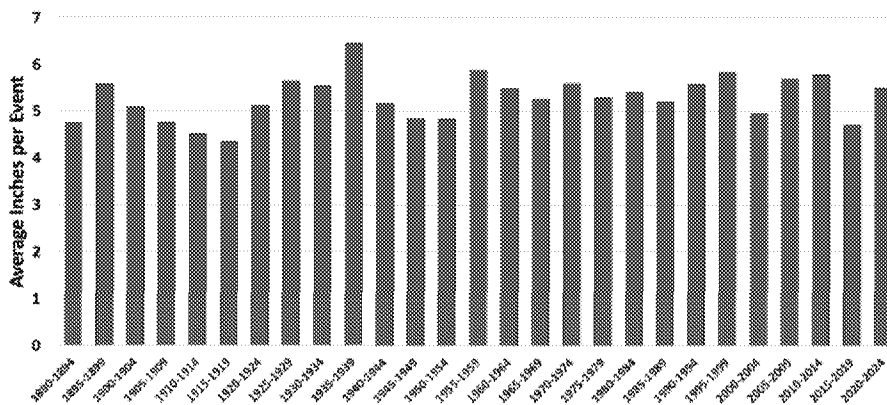


Figure 6.4.5. Average amount of precipitation falling in the 1-in-5yr events for the NE stations

The high percentage increase in the Howarth *et al.* sample is associated with small numbers at relatively few locations: there were only 6 in the first period and 25 in the second across 58 stations. Most of the stations did not record such an event. If there is a region-wide increase in heavy events, it should be seen in the average across all stations. Figure 6.4.5 shows the average precipitation in the 1-in-5 yr events across the NE. The trend is only +0.04 inches/decade. The highest amount, 1935-39, includes the Great New England Hurricane of 1938, one of the rare major (Category 3 or higher) hurricanes to strike the region. The results in Figs. 6.4.4 and 6.4.5 thus suggest that though there was a surge in the number of events at a few locations during the 1995 to 2014 interval, there was no regional pattern and the change did not persist beyond 2014.

Jong *et al.* (2024) document the increase of tropical influences on precipitation events in the Northeast since 1959 and concluded “The autumn extreme precipitation trend over the Northeast U.S. is primarily attributed to tropical cyclone-related events since the 1990s.” The question then becomes: “Was the temporal clustering of tropical systems in 1997-2014 which affected the Northeast a response to increasing GHGs?” Jong *et al.* examined CMIP-6 model output which suggests that there will be fewer such systems in the 21st century but that the intensity of the rainfall events might increase. This conjecture is not seen in Fig. 6.4.5 where the amount-per-event has remained steady over the 135-year period.

There is some evidence to indicate the heaviest rainfall events might be redistributed due to the impact of urban infrastructure on the local weather (e.g., Pielke Sr. *et al.* 2011, Zhan *et al.* 2018, Yang *et al.* 2024). Yang *et al.* state “Cities that experience compact development tend to witness larger increases in extreme rainfall frequency over downtown than their rural surroundings, while the anomalies in extreme rainfall frequency diminish for cities with dispersed development.” While this is an important insight to consider, the effect on the specific stations used in this analysis is unknown, or at least not detectable in Fig. 6.4.5.

In summary, some U.S. regions show short-duration increases in extreme precipitation events, consistent with natural variability. But analysis of long term, nationwide historical records that considers the autocorrelation properties of precipitation data does not support the claim that extreme short-duration rainfall events are becoming more frequent or intense.

6.5 Tornadoes

AR6 assesses tornado trends in the U.S. as follows:

[O]bservational trends in tornadoes, hail, and lightning associated with severe convective storms are not robustly detected due to insufficient coverage of the long-term observations. There is *medium confidence* that the mean annual number of tornadoes in the USA has remained relatively constant. (Chapter 11, section 11.7.3, p. 1594)

The monitoring of weak tornadoes has changed over time. The growth of rural populations and the increasing ability to take video with hand-held devices has led to more frequent reports of weak tornadoes that produce minimal damage. In contrast, strong to violent tornadoes have been observed more consistently over time. Note that tornado strength is measured by the damage it produces, not by the visual appearance of the funnel. Limited real-time observational capabilities in earlier decades did not prevent identification because strong to violent tornadoes leave much more damage which will be assessed later even if the tornado itself was not observed. Since statistics began in 1950, there has been a substantial decrease (by about 50%) in the number of strong to violent tornadoes as shown in Fig. 6.5.1a.

To summarize, there is a noticeable downward trend in the number of severe tornadoes in the U.S. since 1950. After 1990 the number of weak tornadoes in the U.S. has remained roughly constant; data before that are incomplete due to limited monitoring.

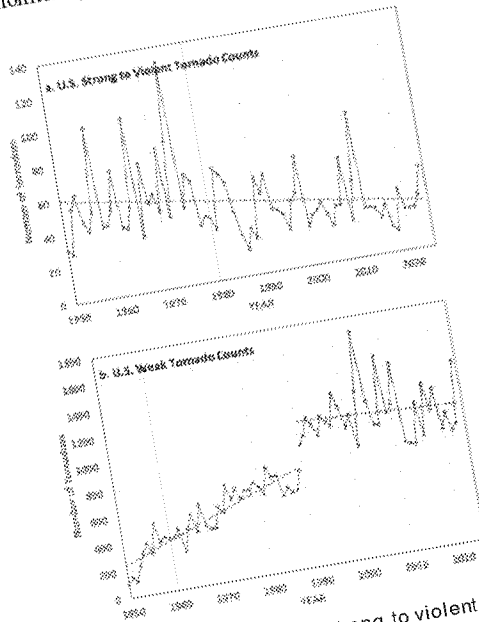


Figure 6.5.1. Annual U.S. tornado counts for (a) strong to violent tornadoes (EF3 to EF5), and (b) weak tornadoes (EF0 to EF2). Based upon NOAA Storms Prediction Center data, available at https://www.spc.noaa.gov/wcm/data/1950-2024_actual_tornadoes.csv

6.6 Flooding

Changes in floods were assessed as follows:

AR6: The SREX **assessed low confidence for observed changes in the magnitude or frequency of floods** at the global scale. This assessment was confirmed by the AR5 report. The SR15 found increases in flood frequency and extreme streamflow in some regions, but decreases in other regions. . . [H]ydrological literature on observed flood changes is heterogeneous, focusing at regional and sub-regional basin scales, making it difficult to synthesise at the global and sometimes regional scales. (Chapter 11.5)

AR6: [T]he seasonality of floods has changed in cold regions where snowmelt dominates the flow regime in response to warming (*high confidence*). Confidence about peak flow trends over past decades on the global scale is *low*. (Chapter 11.5)

NCA4: Trends in extreme high values of streamflow are **mixed** across the United States. Analysis of 200 U.S. stream gauges indicates areas of both increasing and decreasing flooding magnitude **but does not provide robust evidence** that these trends are attributable to human influences (pp. 240-241)

The absence of detectable US-wide trends in flooding is consistent with the findings in Section 6.4 of absence of coherent changes in extreme precipitation.

6.7 Droughts

Assessments of drought trends were as follows. (Note NCA5 did not provide an assessment of trends)

AR6: Few AR6 regions show observed increases in meteorological drought (Section 11.9, p. 1575),

AR6: Increasing trends in agricultural and ecological droughts have been observed on all continents (*medium confidence*), but decreases only in one AR6 region (*medium confidence*). Increasing trends in hydrological droughts have been observed in a few AR6 regions. (Chapter 11 Summary)

NCA4: As a consequence of this increased precipitation, **drought statistics over the entire CONUS have declined**. (p. 233)

NCA4: Recent droughts and associated heat waves have reached record intensity in some regions of the United States; however, by geographical scale and duration, the Dust Bowl era of the **1930s remains the benchmark** drought and extreme heat event in the historical record (very high confidence). (p. 231)

SREX: From a paleoclimate perspective, **recent droughts are not unprecedented**, with severe 'megadroughts' reported in the paleoclimatic record for Europe, North America, and Australia. (p. 170)

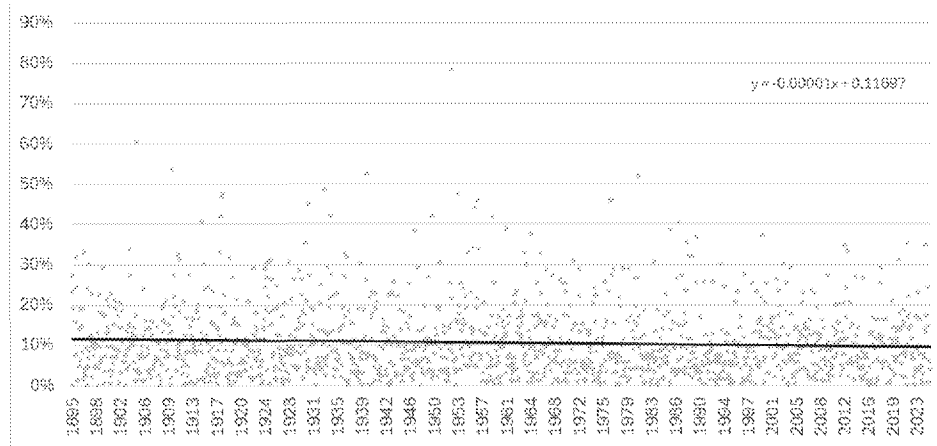


Figure 6.7.1: Monthly percent of US classified as “Very Dry” 1895—2025. Data source: NOAA [HYPERLINK "<https://www.ncei.noaa.gov/access/monitoring/uspa/wet-dry/0>"] least squares trendline added.

As shown in Figure 6.7.1, U.S. long-term data shows an insignificantly declining trend in extreme dryness (-0.001 percent per year)

Kogan *et al.* (2020) examines a 38-year high-resolution satellite-based drought measure and concludes that global drought has not intensified and is not connected to climate change: “it is possible to state firmly that global and main grain countries’ drought area and intensity trends have not been following global climate warming since 1980’s.”

In summary there is no evidence of increasing meteorological drought frequency or intensity in the U.S. or globally over recent decades.

6.8 Wildfires

The IPCC has not provided an attribution assessment of wildfires. As shown in Figure 6.8.1, global wildfire activity as measured by European Space Agency shows a downward trend in the 21st century.

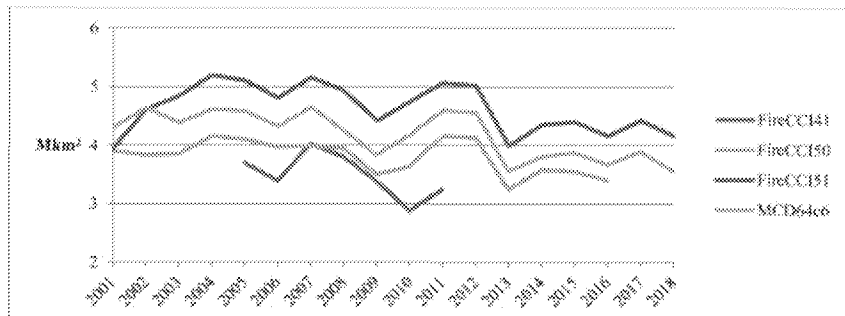


Figure 6.8.1: Global wildfire area 2001-2018. Source: From Lizundia-Loiola *et al.* (2021) Figure 12. The different coloured lines represent data products derived from different satellites and algorithms

Global data show that wildfire coverage is constant or declining on every continent (Samborska and Ritchie, 2024). However there is evidence that the intensity of fires in some regions is worsening (Cunningham *et al.* 2024) and that wildfires resulted in a net loss of global forest cover over 2001-2019 (Tyukavina *et al.* 2022).

Active fire suppression since 1900 makes it difficult to establish a natural baseline for wildfire activity in the U.S. Paleoclimatic evidence indicates that past activity was much higher than today. Marlon *et al.* (2012) used sedimentary charcoal layers to reconstruct fire history of western U.S. for the past 1400 years and also fit a model to predict fire activity as a function of climatic conditions. Their results are summarized in Figure 6.8.2 below (from Figure 2 in their paper). There has been a growing wildfire deficit over the 20th century. In other words, however much fire was observed in the 20th century, it was less than what would have been observed in previous centuries based on the climatic conditions. Parks *et al.* (2025) likewise find that despite the recent increase in wildfire burn area in North America, a significant wildfire deficit remains relative to historical wildfire regimes.

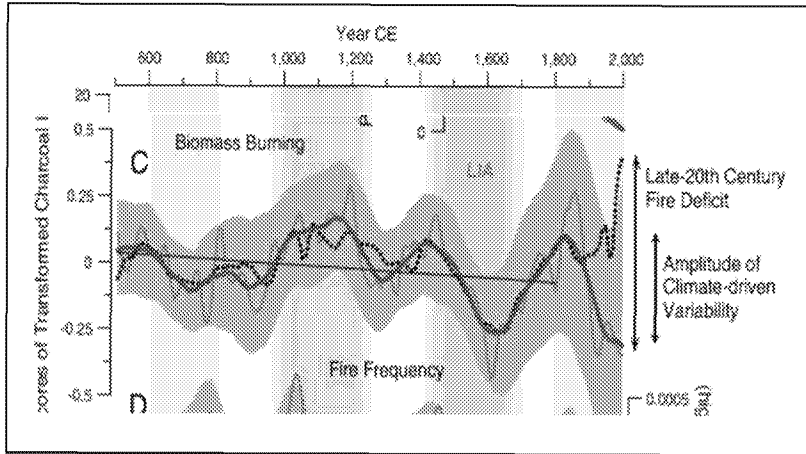


Figure 6.8.2 Fire frequency and fire deficit in the US. The red line shows the smoothed charcoal record and the black dotted line shows the predicted charcoal record based on climatic conditions model. Source: Marlon *et al.* (2012) Figure 2.

U.S. data from the National Interagency Fire Centre (NIFC) from 1926 to 2023 are shown in Figure 6.8.3. The NIFC has removed the pre-1960 data from its current website on the grounds that measurement methods changed after 1960 making the comparison unreliable. Nonetheless just focusing on the post-1985 interval the number of fires is not increasing. The area burned did increase but only until about 2007.

Forest fires have always been a part of nature, and they can certainly create conditions that are inhospitable in the short term for all life, including humans. Science has confirmed the overall benefit and necessity of forest fires. While recent high-profile fires and seasons serve as a reminder of the potential destructive impact, the highest profile U.S. forest fire remains the 1910 Big Blowup fire in the U.S. west, which destroyed over three million acres and eliminated entire towns like Taft, MT (Apple, 2020). The 1910 fire reshaped the U.S. Forest Service (National Forest Foundation 2022) leading to a focus on fire suppression with a primary goal of defeating all forest fires (Forest History Society, 2022). This led to the “10 am rule” in 1935 requiring that all fires spotted on any day had to be controlled by 10 am the following day (National Forest Foundation, 2022).

While defeating all fires seemed a noble goal, questions began to arise as to whether this behavior “followed the science” (U.S. Forest Service, 2022). Over time the U.S. Forest Service has begun to rethink its goals, recognizing that new approaches such as prescribed burns, fuel elimination, and controlled wildfires are more appropriate (Sommer, 2016). Recent research is validating this approach and recognizing that more frequent smaller fires likely result in healthier forests, water ecosystems and biodiversity (Stephens *et al.*, 2021).

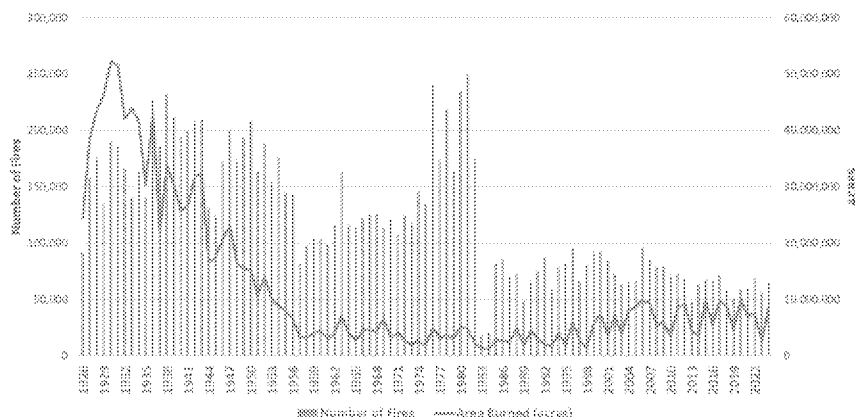


Figure 6.8.3: U.S. wildfires 1926 to 2023. Source: Post-2018: National InterAgency Fire Center data [[HYPERLINK "https://www.nifc.gov/fire-information/statistics/wildfires"](https://www.nifc.gov/fire-information/statistics/wildfires)]. Pre-2017 webarchive.org (n.d.).

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7 CHANGES IN SEA LEVEL

Chapter Summary

Since 1900, global average sea level has risen by about 8 inches. Sea level change along U.S. coasts is highly variable, associated with local variations in processes that contribute to sinking and also with ocean circulation patterns. The largest sea level increases along U.S. coasts are Galveston, New Orleans, and the Chesapeake Bay regions - each of these locations is associated with substantial local land sinking (subsidence) unrelated to climate change.

Extreme projections of global sea level rise are associated with an implausible extreme emissions scenario and inclusion of poorly understood processes associated with hypothetical ice sheet instabilities. In evaluating the IPCC AR6 projections to 2050 (with reference to the baseline period 1995-2014), almost half of the interval has elapsed by 2025, with sea level rising at a lower rate than predicted. U.S. tide gauge measurements reveal no obvious acceleration beyond the historical average rate of sea level rise.

7.1 Global sea level rise

Global sea level rise is arguably the most important climate impact driver that is unambiguously associated with increasing temperatures. At the global level, warming raises sea level through thermal expansion of sea water and through melting of glaciers and ice sheets. Variations in land water storage are another important factor. At the regional scale, sea level change is influenced by large-scale ocean circulation patterns, and geologic processes and deformation from the redistribution of ice and water. Locally, vertical land motion from geologic processes, ground water withdrawal, and fossil fuel extraction are also important.

The IPCC AR6 estimates that global mean sea level increased by 7.9 (5.9–9.8) inches between 1901 and 2018, with the rate of sea level rise accelerating in recent decades. At the ocean basin scale, sea levels have risen fastest in the Western Pacific and slowest in the Eastern Pacific over the period 1993–2018 (Fox-Kemper *et al.*, 2021). The rate of global sea level rise is estimated to be 0.12 inches/year, about the height of two stacked pennies (NASA, 2020).

The observing systems for global sea level rise have advanced significantly in the satellite era, particularly with the advent of satellite altimeters in 1993. Local tide gauges have provided useful data for the past century, and even longer for a few locations. Following the end of the Little Ice Age in the mid-nineteenth century, tide gauges show that the global mean sea level began rising during the period 1820–1860, well before most anthropogenic greenhouse gas emissions.

7.2 U.S. sea level rise

Observed and predicted rates of mean global sea level rise might have little scientific relevance for specific locations, owing to local processes (NOAA, 2025). Figure 7.1 shows that in Canada and Alaska (and also northern Washington), sea level is decreasing, owing to uplift from glacial rebound. Most of the Pacific coast tide gauges show low rates of sea level rise, while largest U.S. rates are on the Gulf coast (Louisiana and Texas) and in the mid-Atlantic states (Chesapeake Bay region).

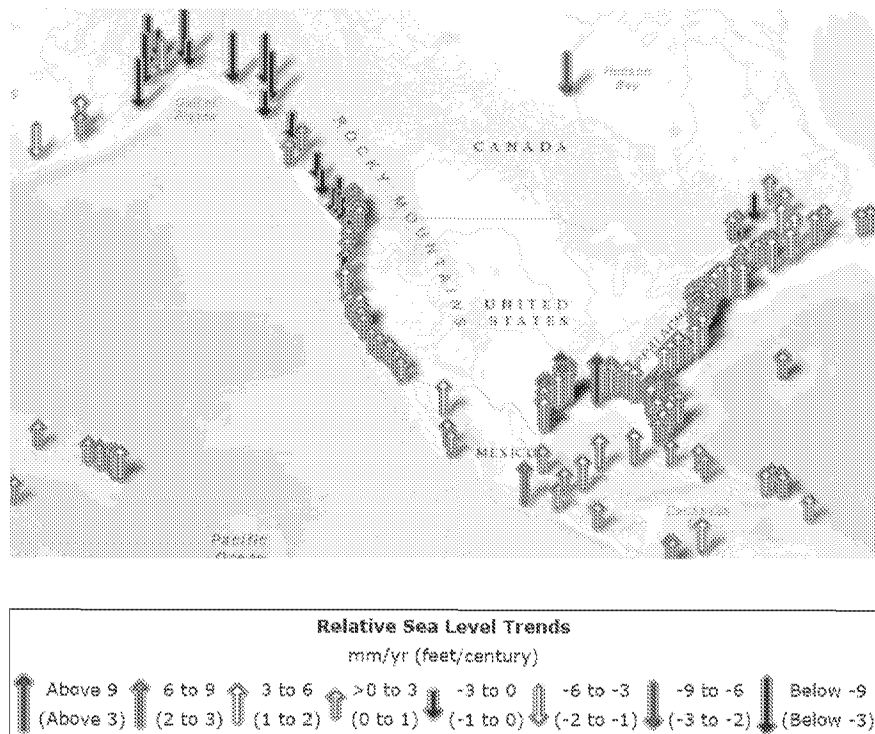


Figure 7.1. Map of rates of relative sea level rise along the U.S. coast (NOAA, <https://tidesandcurrents.noaa.gov/sltrends/>). For reference, 3 mm = 0.12 in.

Measurements of relative sea level rise from tide gauges conflate the climatologically relevant increase in the volume of seawater with local vertical land motion. The latter, which varies from place to place, is best measured using a Global Positioning System (GPS) station located near the tide gauge. It is driven by a range of processes that can be comparable to the climate signal and can locally exacerbate (subsidence/sinking) or mitigate (uplift) the risk of sea level rise (Wöppelmann and Marcos, 2016). Human activities triggering subsidence are often significant. They include soil drainage (*e.g.* for urban development) and subsurface extraction of groundwater or hydrocarbons.

Table 7.1 shows absolute sea-level rise (ASLR) for selected locations, determined from the sum of uncorrected sea-level rise as estimated from tide gauge time series (RSLR) (NOAA, 2025) and the vertical land motion (VLM) measurements (NAS, 2012; Letetrel *et al.*, 2015; Karegar *et al.*, 2016). The absolute sea level rise for each of these locations is significantly smaller than the measured relative sea level rise owing to local subsidence. More than half of the measured relative sea level rise is attributed to land sinking for these locations: San Francisco, Galveston, Grand Isle. For reference, the global average rate of absolute sea level rise is estimated to be 0.12 inches/year.

Location	RSLR	VLM	ASLR
San Francisco, CA	+0.08	-0.06	+0.02
Galveston, TX	+0.26	-0.19	+0.07
Grand Isle, LA	+0.36	-0.28	+0.08
St Petersburg, FL	+0.12	-0.02	+0.10
New York City, NY	+0.11	-0.05	+0.06

Table 7.1 Absolute sea level rise (inches/year) consisting of Relative Sea Level Rise (RSLR) plus Vertical Land Motion (VLM)

San Francisco Bay

Over the past 100 years, relative sea level in the San Francisco Bay area has risen by 7.8 inches, at an average rate of 0.08 inches/year (Figure 7.2). As shown in Table 7.1, San Francisco's vertical land motion is -0.06 inches/year (sinking), producing a recent absolute rate of +0.02 inches/year. Portions of Treasure Island, San Francisco International Airport, and Foster City are sinking as fast as 0.4 inches/year (Shirzaei and Bürgmann, 2018). Problems in the San Francisco Bay area, including threats to the airport, are caused primarily by soil compaction in landfill zones that were formerly wetlands, not by the slow creep of global sea level rise.

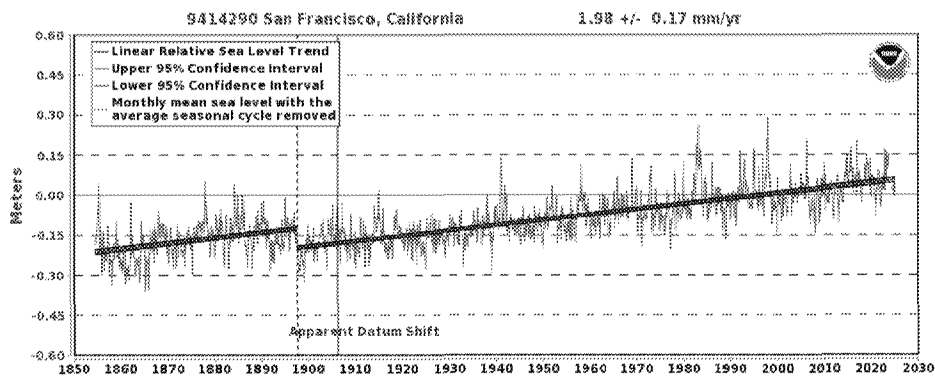


Figure 7.2. Tide gauge measurements at San Francisco, California, obtained from NOAA - https://tidesandcurrents.noaa.gov/strends/strends_station.shtml?id=9414290 (downloaded 4/22/25).

Galveston - Houston

Long-term tide measurements at Galveston Pier 21 show sea level rise of 2.18 feet in the past century, or a rate of 0.26 inches/year (Figure 7.3). Vertical land motion (subsidence) at Galveston is estimated at -0.19 inches/year, yielding an absolute rate of rise of +0.07 inches/year (Table 7.1). The U.S. Geologic Survey found that most of the land-surface subsidence in the Houston-Galveston region is a direct result of groundwater withdrawals (Kasmarek and Ramage 2017), which caused compaction of the aquifer sediments, mostly in the fine-grained silt and clay layers. By 1979, as much as 10 feet of subsidence had occurred in Houston.

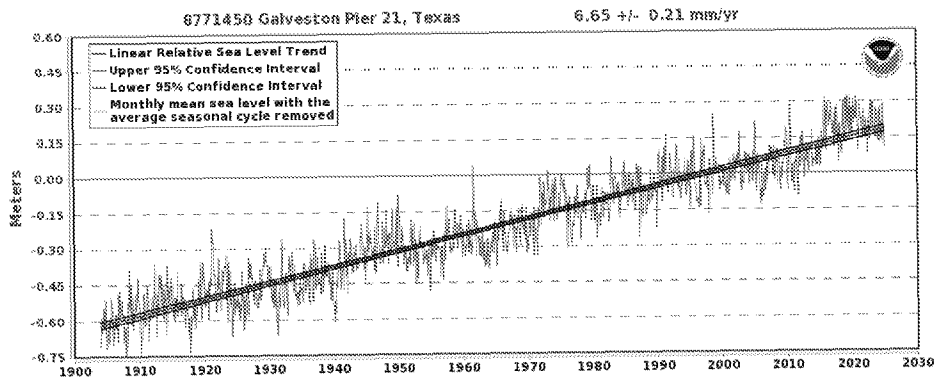


Figure 7.3. Tide gauge measurements Galveston Pier, TX, obtained from NOAA - https://tidesandcurrents.noaa.gov/sltrends/sltrends_station.shtml?id=8771450 (downloaded 4/22/2025).

New Orleans and the Mississippi delta

Long-term tide gauge measurements at Grand Isle, Louisiana, show that sea level has risen by slightly more than 3 feet over the last 100 years at an average rate of 0.36 inches/year (Figure 7.4). Vertical land motion (subsidence) is estimated -0.28 inches/year. Table 7.1 gives the absolute sea level rise as +0.08 inches/year.

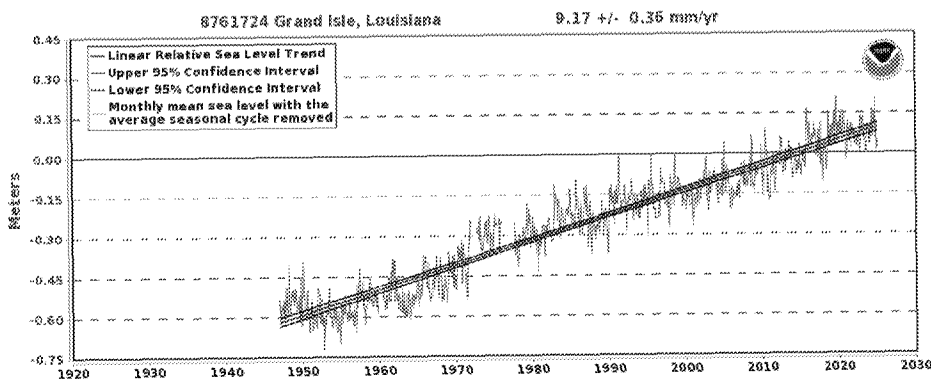


Figure 7.4. Tide gauge measurements at Grand Isle, LA, obtained from NOAA - https://tidesandcurrents.noaa.gov/sltrends/sltrends_station.shtml?id=8761724 (downloaded 4/22/25).

The issues of sea level rise and land loss in the Mississippi Delta region are complex, with geological subsidence and the decline in sediment transported by the Mississippi River being the dominant drivers. The construction of dams in the basin since the 1950s has decreased the Mississippi's suspended sediment load by ~50 percent (Maloney 2018). A new subsidence map of coastal Louisiana finds the coastal region to be sinking at about one third of an inch per year (Neinhuis *et al.* 2017), associated with groundwater and resource withdrawal. As the city's elevation averages one to two feet *below* sea level, sea level rise from anthropogenic warming is hardly the dominant driver of New Orleans' problems.

New York City

New York City is particularly vulnerable to the effects of sea level rise because it is built primarily on islands and has 520 miles of coastline. Measurements by a tide gauge at the southern tip of Manhattan (The Battery) show that relative sea level has risen over 11 inches over the past century, at an average rate of 0.11 inches/year (Figure 7.5). But vertical land motion in the New York City area is -0.05 inches/year (roughly 5 inches per century), so that the absolute rate of sea level rise at The Battery is 0.06 inches/year, or about 55 percent of the measured relative sea level rise.

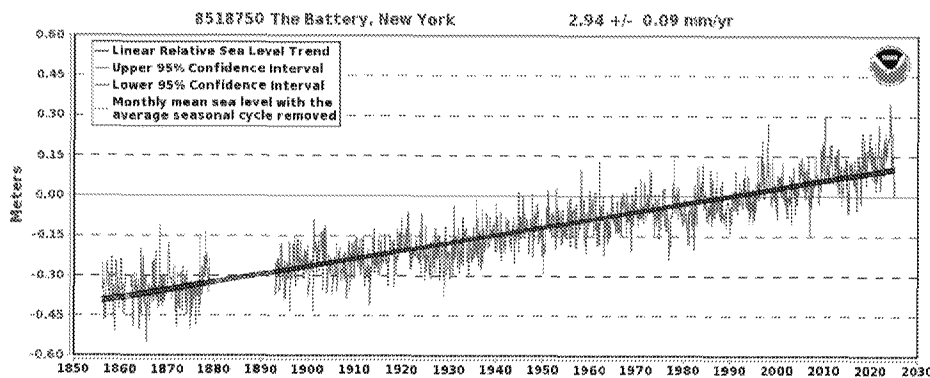


Figure 7.5. Tide gauge measurements at The Battery, New York, obtained from NOAA - https://tidesandcurrents.noaa.gov/strends/strends_station.shtml?id=8518750 (downloaded 4/22/25).

7.3 Projected sea level rise

The concern over sea level rise is not about the roughly eight inches of global rise since 1900. Rather, it is about projections of *accelerated* rise based upon simulations of a warming climate through the 21st century.

AR6 finds *high agreement* across published global mean sea level projections for 2050 with little sensitivity to emissions scenarios. Considering only projections incorporating ice-sheet processes in whose quantification there is at least *medium confidence*, the global sea level projections for 2050, across all emissions scenarios, fall between 3.94 and 15.75 inches (5th–95th percentile *very likely* range) relative to the 1995–2014 baseline period (Fox-Kemper *et al.*, 2021).

Conversely, AR6 states there is *low agreement* across published global mean sea level projections for 2100, particularly for higher emissions scenarios. Considering only projections representing ice sheet processes in whose quantification there is at least *medium confidence*, the AR6 global mean sea level projections for 2100 lie between 7.87-9 and 39.37-44 inches (5th–95th percentile *very likely* range) under the medium emissions scenario SSP2-4.5 (Fox-Kemper *et al.*, 2021). There is deep uncertainty surrounding projections of sea level rise to 2100 owing to uncertainties in ice sheet instabilities, particularly for the higher emissions scenarios.

In February 2022, NOAA issued its projections of sea level rise for various sites along the U.S. coast (Sweet *et al.*, 2022). They claim that by 2050, the sea will have risen one foot at The Battery in Manhattan (relative to 2020). A one-foot rise in thirty years would be more than twice the current rate and about three times the average rate over the past century. In that historical context, NOAA's projection is remarkable—as shown in Figure 7.6, it would require a dramatic acceleration beyond anything observed since the early 20th century. But even more noteworthy is that Sweet *et al.* (2022) say this rise is “locked in”—it will happen no matter what future emissions are. We should know in a decade or so whether that prediction has legs.

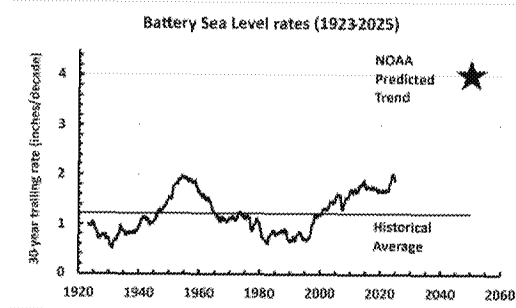


Figure 7.6 Rate of sea level rise at the Battery in Manhattan. Shown is the historical thirty-year trailing trend, together with the allegedly “locked in” NOAA predicted trend for 2050. Historical data: NOAA Tides and Current.

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8 UNCERTAINTIES IN CLIMATE CHANGE ATTRIBUTION

Chapter summary

“Attribution” refers to identifying the cause of some aspect of climate change, specifically with reference to anthropogenic activity. There is an ongoing scientific debate around attribution methods, particularly regarding extreme weather events. Attribution is made difficult by high natural variability, the relatively small expected anthropogenic signal, lack of high-quality data, and reliance on deficient climate models. The IPCC has long cautioned that methods to establish causality in climate science are inherently uncertain and ultimately depend on expert judgement.

Substantive criticism of the main IPCC assessments of the role of CO₂ in recent warming focus on inadequate assessment of natural climate variability, uncertainties in measurement of solar variability and in aerosol forcing, and problems in the statistical methods used for attribution.

The IPCC does not make attribution claims for most climate impact drivers related to extreme events. Statements related to statistics of global extremes (*e.g.* event probability or return times, magnitude and frequency) are not generally considered accurate owing to data limitations and are made with low confidence. Attribution of individual extreme weather events is challenging due to their rarity. Conflicting claims about the causes of the 2021 Western North America Heatwave illustrate the perils of hasty attribution claims about individual extreme events.

8.1 Introduction

The Intergovernmental Panel on Climate Change (IPCC) distinguishes between detection of climate change and attribution of its cause. As defined by the AR6 WGI Glossary (IPCC, 2025):

Detection: Detection of change is defined as the process of demonstrating that climate or a system affected by climate has changed in some defined statistical sense, without providing a reason for that change. An identified change is detected in observations if its likelihood of occurrence by chance due to internal variability alone is determined to be small, for example, <10%.

Attribution: Attribution is defined as the process of evaluating the relative contributions of multiple causal factors to a change or event with a formal assessment of confidence.

Both detection and attribution rely on statistical analysis. Detection focuses on whether changes are significant enough to stand out from random variation regardless of cause. Attribution involves comparison of observed events to model-generated counterfactuals. Since experimentation on the climate is not possible, attribution requires statistical inference to assess how much human activities (such as GHG emissions) versus natural factors (like volcanic eruptions) contribute to observed changes. Attribution methods assume all external and internal drivers of the system are known and represented.

There are ongoing scientific debates around attribution methods, especially those for attributing extreme weather events to climate change. The IPCC has long cautioned that methods to establish causality in climate science are inherently uncertain and ultimately depend on expert judgement. AR4 Working Group I (Hegerl *et al.*, 2007) explained it as follows:

‘Attribution’ of causes of climate change is the process of establishing the most likely causes for the detected change with some defined level of confidence... unequivocal attribution would require controlled experimentation with the climate system. Since that is not possible, in practice attribution of anthropogenic climate change is understood to mean demonstration that a detected change is ‘consistent with the estimated responses to the given combination of anthropogenic and natural forcing’ and ‘not consistent with alternative, physically plausible explanations of recent climate change that exclude important elements of the given combination of forcings’ (IPCC, 2001)... The approaches used in detection and attribution research described above cannot fully account for all uncertainties, and thus ultimately expert judgement is required to give a calibrated assessment of whether a specific cause is responsible for a given climate change.

AR5 Working Group II (Cramer *et al.*, 2014) makes the following statement:

Two broad challenges to the detection and attribution of climate change impacts relate to observations and process understanding. On the observational side, high-quality, long-term data relating to natural and human systems and the multiple factors affecting them are rare. In addition, the detection and attribution of climate change impacts requires an understanding of the processes by which climate change, in conjunction with other factors, may affect the system in question.

Because of the complexity of the causal chains in the climate system, investigation of these relationships is exceptionally challenging.

8.2 Attribution methods

The IPCC employs several attribution methods to assess the causes of observed climate changes, distinguishing between natural and human-induced factors. Below is a concise description of the key IPCC attribution methods.

Optimal Fingerprinting uses linear regression to explain variations in observed climate data as a weighted sum of climate model simulations run with and without anthropogenic forcings. The data used in the regression model is weighted to try to minimize the influence of random noise and the estimation method is chosen to account for climate model error.

Time Series Analysis exploits statistical differences between anthropogenic forcing and natural variability to see which dominates observed temperatures and also uses variations in the timing of changes to determine if causal dependence across data series can be inferred.

Process-Based Attribution focuses on understanding the physical mechanisms behind observed changes. This approach combines observations, climate models, and theoretical understanding to attribute changes in specific processes to forcings. This approach is often used for regional climate phenomena, such as monsoon changes or polar amplification

Extreme Event Attribution assesses the role of human influence in the likelihood of occurrence or intensity of extreme weather events (*e.g.* heat waves or droughts). Methods include:

- Probabilistic Event Attribution uses large ensembles of climate model simulations to compare observed events to model-generated counterfactuals
- Storyline Approach examines the physical processes driving an event and evaluates how anthropogenic forcings might have modified those processes

8.3 Attribution of global warming

Attribution statements for global warming in the three most recent IPCC Assessment reports are:

AR4: **Most of the observed increase** in global average temperatures since the mid-20th century is *very likely* due to the observed increase in anthropogenic greenhouse gas concentrations. (IPCC 2007)

AR5: It is *extremely likely* that **more than half of the observed increase** in global average surface temperature from 1951 to 2010 was caused by the anthropogenic increase in greenhouse gas concentrations and other anthropogenic forcings together. The best estimate of the human-induced contribution to warming is similar to the observed warming over this period. (IPCC 2013)

AR6: The *likely* range of total human-caused global surface temperature increase from 1850–1900 to 2010–2019 is 0.8°C to 1.3°C, with a best estimate of 1.07°C. It is *likely* that well-mixed GHGs contributed a warming of 1.0°C to 2.0°C, other human drivers (principally aerosols) contributed a cooling of 0.0°C to 0.8°C, natural drivers changed global surface temperature by –0.1°C to +0.1°C, and internal variability changed it by –0.2°C to +0.2°C. It is *very likely* that **well-mixed GHGs were the main driver** of tropospheric warming since 1979. (IPCC 2021)

The AR4 and AR5 attribution statements reference the warming since the mid-20th century, the period when greenhouse gas emissions began increasing rapidly. The words “most” and “more than half” are deliberately imprecise, potentially ranging from 51 to 99 percent of the warming – presumably this imprecision is to account for structural uncertainties such as natural internal variability. The confidence level increases from *very likely* to *extremely likely* from AR4 to AR5. The structure of the attribution statement in the AR6 is fundamentally different, referencing the warming to the period 1850–1900. The AR6 attribution statement is more precise numerically, but with a lower level of confidence at “likely” – AR6 attributes essentially all the warming to increases in greenhouse gases. The most confident statement from AR6 relates to the tropospheric warming since 1979, using the words “main driver” and “*very likely*.”

There are three areas of substantive criticism of the IPCC’s assessment of the causes of the recent warming: inadequate assessment of natural climate variability, inappropriate statistical methods, and substantial discrepancies between models and observations. The last is discussed in Chapter 5, while this chapter discusses the first two factors. All of these criticisms are relevant to the IPCC’s ~~policy-informing~~ attribution of the recent warming, which also underpins extreme event attribution

8.3.1 Natural climate variability

AR6 states that natural external drivers since 1850–1900 have changed global surface temperature by –0.1°C to +0.1°C, and internal variability has changed it by –0.2°C to +0.2°C – on average having essentially no net impact on the warming since 1850–1900. As discussed below, this minimal contribution of natural variability has been disputed by several publications that question the magnitudes of solar variability and internal variability from large-scale ocean circulations.

Solar variability

AR5 concluded that the best estimate of radiative forcing due to Total Solar Irradiance (TSI) changes over the period 1750–2011 was very small (0.05 W/m², Myrhe *et al.*, 2014). AR6 acknowledges substantially higher values and a much larger range of estimates of changes in TSI over the last several centuries, stating that the TSI between the Maunder Minimum (1645–1715) and the second half of the twentieth century increased by 0.7–2.7 W/m², a range that includes both low and high variability TSI data

sets (Gulev, 2021). However, the recommended forcing dataset for the CMIP6 climate model simulations used in AR6 for attribution studies averages two data sets with low solar variability (Matthes, 2017).

While AR6 shows a substantially greater solar impact than does AR5, the overall impact of solar forcing on the climate was still assessed to be small compared to anthropogenic forcing. However, the impact of solar variations on the climate is uncertain and subject to substantial debate (Lockwood, 2012; Connolly *et al.*, 2021) - something that is not evident in the IPCC assessment reports.

The variations of TSI over time remains a challenging problem. Since 1978, there have been direct measurements of TSI from satellites. However, the data exhibits non-negligible inconsistencies, and interpreting any multi-decadal trends in TSI requires comparisons of observations from overlapping satellites. There are several rival composite TSI datasets that disagree as to whether TSI increased or decreased during the period 1986–96 (the ACRIM gap; see Chapter 4). Further, the satellite record of TSI is used to calibrate proxy models that infer past solar variations from sunspots and cosmogenic isotope measurements (Velasco Herrera *et al.*, 2015).

There is substantial evidence for high solar activity in the second half of the 20th century (starting in 1959) and extending into the 1990's, before a decline in the early 21st century; this period is often termed the “Modern Maximum.” (Chatzistergos *et al.*, 2023; Solanki *et al.*, 2004; Usoskin *et al.*, 2007). However, some scientists have concluded that it is not possible to be confident of any multi-decadal trend in TSI (Schmutz, 2021).

This uncertainty causes some reconstructions of TSI from 1750 to have low variability (implying a very low impact of solar variations on global mean surface temperature) whereas datasets with high TSI variability can explain more than 70 percent of the temperature variability since preindustrial times (Scafetta, 2013; Stefani, 2021). The choice of TSI satellite record used in an analysis can therefore substantially influence how much climate change is attributed to human versus natural forcings.

There is growing evidence that other aspects of solar variability, which are referred to as solar indirect effects, either amplify TSI forcing or are independent of TSI forcing. Scafetta *et al.* (2023) suggests that ~80 percent of solar influence on climate might stem from non-TSI mechanisms. There are numerous candidate processes, including solar ultraviolet changes; energetic particle precipitation; atmospheric-electric-field effect on cloud cover; cloud changes produced by solar-modulated galactic cosmic rays; large relative changes in the magnetic field; and the strength of the solar wind. Such solar indirect effects are not included in climate models, although indirect methods of estimating their impacts suggest they are significant. However, claims of non-TSI mechanisms influencing climate are uncertain and debated.

Natural variability of large-scale ocean circulations

Variations in global mean surface temperature are linked to recurrent large-scale variations in ocean circulation patterns, including the Atlantic Multidecadal Oscillation (AMO), the Pacific Decadal Oscillation (PDO) and the El Niño-Southern Oscillation (ENSO). These circulations influence ocean heat uptake and heat distribution and also influence atmospheric circulation patterns and cloud distributions. There is some debate as to whether these variations are strictly internal to the climate system, or whether this variability can have a solar/astronomical origin or can be influenced by large volcanic eruptions.

While climate models simulate the large-scale ocean circulations and internal climate variability, most models have too little amplitude compared to observations at multi-decadal frequencies and phasing out-of-sync with the observed climate (Kravtsov *et al.* 2024). Averaging multiple simulations effectively averages out the internal variations, leaving only the forced climate variability (*e.g.* CO₂ forcing). With most of the modern warming beginning in the late 1970's, the recent 50-year warming is on the same time scale as the multi-decadal oscillations of the AMO and PDO.

Here are summary statements from the AR5 and AR6 reports:

AR5: Decadal variability in the Pacific, associated with the PDO or IPO [Interdecadal Pacific Oscillation], contributes significantly to regional and global temperature trends, but the relative contributions of internal variability and external forcing are difficult to disentangle in CMIP5 simulations.

AR6: Since AR5, there has been increased understanding of the role of internal variability, such as ENSO, PDO, and AMO, in modulating regional climate trends. However, limitations in simulating the exact timing and amplitude of these modes in CMIP6 models contribute to uncertainties in attributing observed changes to anthropogenic forcing (*high confidence*).

The amplitude of the peak-to-trough impact of the multi-decadal oscillations on global temperatures has been assessed by the IPCC AR6: “The likely range of change due to internal variability is -0.2°C to $+0.2^{\circ}\text{C}$ (IPCC, 2021).” This implies a trough-to-peak change of 0.4°C . Over many centuries, any global temperature changes from the troughs and peaks will cancel out, with little to no net impact.

However, with a nominal timescale of 60-80 years for oscillations such as the AMO and PDO, the timing of the peaks and troughs can be confused with the secular trend. This becomes very relevant for attributing the warming for the past 50 years, when most of the recent warming has occurred. Even if climate models have the correct amplitude of the multidecadal oscillations, the timing of the peaks and troughs is not adequately simulated, with each model and individual ensemble simulating a different phasing. Once the simulations of the ensemble members and different models are averaged, the natural internal variability contribution is averaged out owing to differences in phasing, effectively cancelling the role of natural internal variability in the attribution process.

The time series of global surface temperature anomalies since 1850 (Figure 8.1) shows irregular variations of significant amplitude against the background of an overall warming trend and, after 1976, a pronounced difference in trends between the Northern Hemisphere and the Southern Hemisphere. The period between 1905-1945 shows a strong trend of warming. The following 30 years from 1945-1976 showed slightly declining temperatures. The most recent warming period started in 1977.

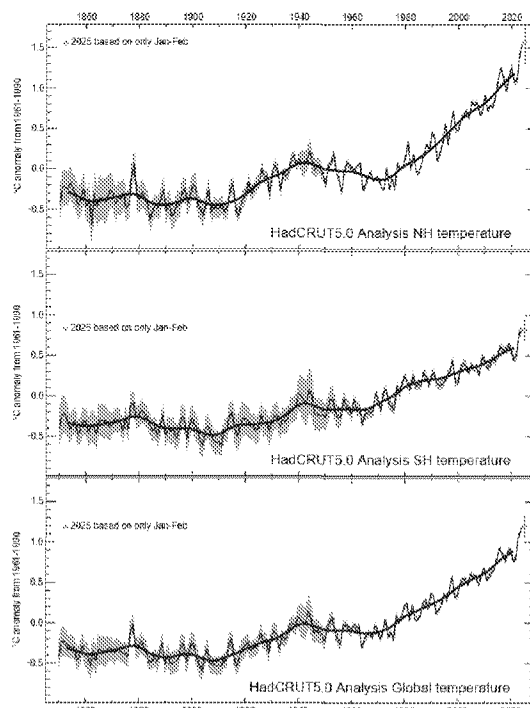


Figure 8.1 Global average surface temperature anomalies 1850—2025. Top: Northern hemisphere. Middle: Southern hemisphere. Bottom: Global average. Source: UK Hadley Centre [[HYPERLINK "https://crudata.uea.ac.uk/cru/data/temperature/HadCRUT5.0Analysis.pdf"](https://crudata.uea.ac.uk/cru/data/temperature/HadCRUT5.0Analysis.pdf)]

The causes of the early 20th century warming are discussed by Hegerl *et al.* (2017; 2019). The atmospheric CO₂ concentration increased from 298 ppm in 1905 to 310 ppm in 1941, implying that CO₂ had little impact. Volcanic activity during this period was very low, and solar forcing is uncertain. Yet Hegerl *et al.* (2017) somehow inferred that 40–54 percent of this warming could be attributed to external forcing, with the rest associated with internal variability. Bronniman *et al.* (2024) focused on the causes of the cooling in the first decade of the 20th century in the Southern Hemisphere. They found that the cooling was related to a La-Niña-like pattern in the Pacific, a cold tropical and subtropical South Atlantic, a cold extratropical South Pacific, and cool southern midlatitude land areas. The Southern Annular Mode was positive, with a strengthened Amundsen–Bellingshausen seas low, although the spread of the data products is considerable.

The warming in the 1930's and subsequent cooling during mid-century was particularly pronounced in the Arctic. Bokuchava and Semenov (2021) find that these variations were most likely caused by a combined effect of long-term natural climate variations in the North Atlantic and North Pacific with a contribution of the natural radiative forcing related to the reduced volcanic activity and variations of solar activity, as well as growing greenhouse gases concentrations. Tokinaga *et al.* (2017) showed that the combined effect of internally generated Pacific and Atlantic interdecadal variability intensified Arctic

warming in the early 20th century. The synchronized Pacific-Atlantic warming drastically alters planetary-scale circulations over the Northern Hemisphere; these same circulation patterns have a global influence.

The cooling period between 1945 and 1976 has been referred to as the “grand hiatus.” Numerous causes have been hypothesized: natural internal variability from fluctuations associated with the Pacific Decadal Oscillation and Atlantic Multidecadal Oscillation; cooling from increased emissions of aerosols from industrial activities; increased heat uptake in the Atlantic, Southern and Equatorial Pacific Oceans. Thompson *et al.* (2010) find that the hemispheric differences in temperature trends in the middle of the twentieth century stem largely from a rapid drop in Northern Hemisphere sea surface temperatures of about 0.3 °C between about 1968 and 1972.

The Great Pacific Climate Shift of 1976-1977 was a notable climatic event characterized by an abrupt change in the North Pacific Ocean's atmosphere-ocean system that interacted with global climate patterns. This shift is closely associated with the Pacific Decadal Oscillation (PDO) that oscillates between warm and cool phases over decades. The 1976 shift marked a transition from a predominantly negative (cool) PDO phase (1947–1976) to a positive (warm) phase (1977 through 2000), with significant implications for global and regional climate patterns, including the frequencies of El Niño and La Niña events. The Great Pacific Climate Shift coincided with the beginning of a period of accelerated global warming. When the Great Pacific Climate Shift is accounted for in climate attribution analyses since 1950, 40 percent or more of the warming in the second half of the 20th century is attributed to natural internal variability (McLean *et al.*, 2009; Tung and Zhou, 2013; Chylek *et al.*, 2016; Scafetta, 2021).

8.3.2 Optimal fingerprinting

Optimal fingerprinting is a statistical technique introduced by Allen and Tett (1999) that compares observed climate data to climate model simulations to identify patterns (or “fingerprints”) associated with human or natural forcing. It involves taking a vector of observed climate changes, such as warming rates in locations around the world, and decomposing them into a weighted sum of “signals”, which are analogues to the observations generated by climate models with different types of forcings. The weights are chosen using a regression method called Total Least Squares (TLS). The analysis commonly uses just two signals, one generated by models using only anthropogenic forcings and one using only natural forcings. If the estimated weighting coefficient attached to a signal is significantly different from zero, then that signal is said to be “detected”. If it is close to 1.0, then the model generating the signal is said to be consistent with observations. If it is less than 1.0, then the model signal for that forcing is too strong and needs to be scaled down, and vice-versa. Both the observed data and the signals are weighted using a model-generated estimate of patterns of randomness in the climate system so as, in principle, to put maximum weight on regions where natural variability is minimized.

Optimal fingerprinting is the primary tool for attribution in the research literature. While it has been widely used and prominently featured by the IPCC since 2001, there is very little literature examining the statistical properties of the results it generates. One of its inherent weaknesses is that results depend on assumptions about the accuracy of climate models, especially regarding their representation of natural variability (IPCC AR5 Ch 10.2.3).

A series of papers by McKittrick (McKittrick 2021, 2022, 2023, 2025) has challenged the optimal fingerprinting method, arguing that it is inherently unreliable and that practices adopted from econometrics can provide more valid results. Statistical theory requires that for regression models to yield unbiased coefficients, a set of assumptions called the Gauss-Markov conditions must hold. McKittrick (2021) argued that the Allen and Tett (1999) methodology violates the Gauss-Markov conditions, leading to potentially biased and inconsistent fingerprinting coefficients, undermining the reliability of the method. Chen *et al.* (2023) confirmed this analysis, although they argued that the method could yield valid results under very stringent assumptions. McKittrick (2022) and (2023) raised a further concern that climate scientists—virtually alone among

scientific disciplines—have used TLS to estimate anthropogenic greenhouse gas signal coefficients, despite its tendency to be unstable unless some strong assumptions hold that in practice are unlikely to be true. Under conditions that easily arise in optimal fingerprinting, TLS estimates have a large positive bias. Thus, any study that used TLS for optimal fingerprinting without verifying its applicability in the specific data context has likely overstated the attribution.

McKittrick (2025) presented an empirical example comparing the results of conventional optimal fingerprinting against methods drawn from mainstream econometrics that are known to be valid for the specific application of signal detection. While the IPCC optimal fingerprinting method yields an anthropogenic signal coefficient close to 1.0 on a global temperature data set spanning 1900 to 2010, the consistent estimation method yields a coefficient around 0.4, which rises to about 0.65 on data spanning 1980 to 2010, implying the model response to greenhouse gases needs to be scaled down by about half to optimally match observations. The natural forcing signal coefficient, by contrast, is between 2.0 and 4.0, implying the climate model signals of natural forcing need to be scaled up two-to four-fold to match observed climate change. The fingerprinting coefficients estimated in McKittrick (2025), when used to scale the average sensitivity of the climate models used to generate the forcing signals in his data set, imply a Transient Climate Sensitivity of 1.4°C, which is consistent with the estimate by Lewis (2023) using a different estimation method and multiple independent data sets.

While these analyses do not falsify results of the IPCC optimal fingerprinting method, they do challenge the basis on which they were believed to be correct.

8.3.3 Time series methods

The IPCC (AR5 WGI 10.2.2) drew attention to alternative approaches of assessing causality that emerged from the time series econometrics literature. These have the advantage of not depending on assumptions about the accuracy of climate models, but the disadvantage that they depend on difficult-to-test assumptions about the data generating process underlying climate and forcing data. The methods, now referred to as climate econometrics, use the tools of unit root testing, Granger causality and cointegration analysis, all of which are familiar in economics and finance and which are slowly being adopted in climate science. Time series analysis methods hold out the possibility of determining whether anthropogenic or natural forcings are the primary drivers of climate change without requiring the use of climate models, although key questions remain unsettled (e.g. Dergiades *et al.*, 2016, Balcombe *et al.*, 2019, Dagsvik *et al.*, 2020, Razzak, 2022, Dagsvik and Moen, 2023).

“Granger causality” modeling is a tool for determining directions of influence in data series that move together. It is a statistical, not a physical, concept. If knowing the current value of one variable significantly improves the forecast accuracy of another variable, we can infer a causal connection exists; this is called Granger causality. The modeling tools, called vector autoregression, measure direct impulse-response patterns and feedbacks. An application to the well-known Vostok ice core data revealed an error in Al Gore’s documentary *An Inconvenient Truth*. Gore showed the data and drew attention to the coherence of temperature and CO₂ changes over a 440,000 year span, which he asserted was due to CO₂ driving temperature changes. But temperature changes can also affect atmospheric CO₂ levels. Davidson *et al.* (2015) examined the series and found that temperature Granger causes CO₂ but not the reverse. In other words on the time scales represented in the Vostok data, the coherence in the series is primarily due to the influence of temperature on CO₂ levels, not the feedback of CO₂ levels on temperature.

In summary, the primary statistical methods for attributing causation in climate data are optimal fingerprinting and time series analysis. Applications of the Allen and Tett (1999) optimal fingerprinting method dominate the attribution literature and have underpinned past IPCC conclusions, but results depend on the accuracy of climate models and the method has recently been criticized as inherently biased. Time

series methods do not depend on climate models but require assumptions of their own and have generated results that have thus far not converged on a consensus.

8.4 Declining planetary albedo and recent record warmth

A sharp recent increase in global average temperatures has raised the question of short-term drivers of climate. One such candidate is the fraction of absorbed solar radiation which has also increased abruptly in recent years. The question is whether the change is an internal feedback to warming caused by greenhouse gases, or whether something else increased the fraction of absorbed radiation which then caused the recent warming.

The planetary albedo is the fraction of incoming solar radiation that is reflected back into space rather than being absorbed by the planet. Highly reflective surfaces like cloud tops and snow and ice are most important in this regard. The Earth's albedo is approximately 30 percent, meaning almost a third of the sunlight that reaches Earth is directly reflected back to space. A lower albedo implies more solar energy is absorbed by the planet to be then re-radiated as heat. Hence, other things being equal, a decline in planetary albedo is associated with a warming of the Earth.

Arguably the most striking change in the Earth's climate system during the 21st century is a significant reduction in planetary albedo since 2015, which has coincided with at least two years of record global warmth. Figure 8.2 shows the planetary albedo variations since 2000, when there are good satellite observations. The 0.5 percent reduction in planetary albedo since 2015 corresponds to an increase of 1.7 W/m² in absorbed solar radiation averaged over the planet (Hansen and Karecha, 2025). For comparison, the IPCC estimate of forcing from the increase in atmospheric CO₂ compared to preindustrial times is approximately 2.2 W/m² (Figure 3.1.2). Judy update with Forster et al [HYPERLINK "<https://doi.org/10.5194/essd-17-2641-2025>"]

Forster et al. (2024) "Indicators of Global Climate Change 2024: annual update of key indicators of the state of the climate system and human influence" [HYPERLINK "<https://doi.org/10.5194/essd-17-2641-2025>"]

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Looking back prior to 2000 with less adequate data, Goessling *et al.* (2025) assessed that the planetary albedo was relatively low around the 1940's and 50's before rising industrial aerosol precursor emissions increased the albedo until the 1980's. The strongest planetary albedo excursions were high-albedo episodes caused by volcanic eruptions, such as after the Mount Pinatubo eruption in 1991. Although uncertain, the 2023 planetary albedo minimum might have been the lowest since at least 1940.

Changes in surface characteristics cannot explain this decrease in planetary albedo since 2015:

- Arctic sea ice extent has declined by about 5 percent since 1980 (https://nsidc.org/data/seaice_index/images/s_plot_hires.png), although following 2007 there has been a pause in the Arctic sea ice decline (England *et al.*, 2025)
- Regarding Antarctic sea ice, the IPCC AR6 concludes that "There has been no significant trend in Antarctic sea ice area from 1979 to 2020 due to regionally opposing trends and large internal variability." (Summary for Policymakers, A.1.5)
- Northern hemispheric annual snow cover has been slowly declining since 1967, with barely significant trends. The data show the Northern Hemisphere has snowier winters, accompanied by more rapid melt in spring and summer, see [HYPERLINK "<http://climate.rutgers.edu/snowcover/>"] and Section 5.6
- Global greening (Chapter 2) is contributing to the decrease in planetary albedo, as forests have a lower albedo than open lands or snow. However, there is some evidence that forests increase cloud

cover (high reflectivity), which counteracts the direct albedo decrease associated with increasing forested area.

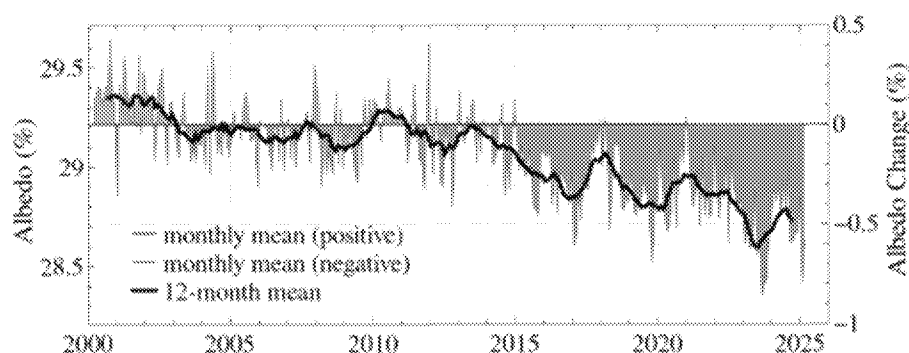


Figure 8.2. Earth's albedo (reflectivity, in percent), with seasonality removed. From Hansen and Karecha (2025)

Changes in surface reflectivity are contributing to a small, slow decline in planetary albedo. However, these changes cannot explain the sharp decline in planetary albedo beginning in 2015. Further, any changes in surface albedo are effectively damped by about a factor of three on average, primarily due to cloud masking (Loeb *et al.* 2019). Surface albedo changes have thus contributed only weakly to the recent planetary albedo decline, particularly when averaged annually and globally. This leaves the most likely explanation for the sharp albedo decline as changes in atmospheric aerosols and/or clouds.

Aerosols are small particles in the atmosphere that reflect sunlight and can interact with cloud processes to make the clouds more reflective. Aerosols have both natural origins (*e.g.* dust from soils, wildfires) as well as human origins from combustion (including fossil fuels). Regions that are greening and/or have an increase in rainfall might produce less dust. For anthropogenic aerosols, new ship fuel regulations aimed at reducing sulfur emissions were implemented in three phases, in 2010, 2015 and 2020. Sulfate particles reflect solar radiation. Cleaner air means less solar radiation is reflected, which contributes to surface warming. Indirect effects of sulfate aerosols include increasing the reflectivity of low-level clouds in the subtropics. There is controversy surrounding the importance of this change in sulfate emissions to the Earth's radiation balance (Hodnebrog *et al.*, 2024; Yuan *et al.*, 2024), but the restriction of this effect to major shipping routes suggests a small global impact (Schmidt, 2024).

Changes in clouds are the primary candidate to explain the decline in global albedo since 2015. Two recent papers (Loeb *et al.*, 2024; Goessling *et al.* 2024) have addressed recent variations in cloud properties. By considering satellite and reanalysis data, Loeb *et al.* found that decreases in low- and mid-level clouds since 2015 are the primary reason for decreasing planetary albedo in the Northern hemisphere, whereas in the Southern hemisphere the decrease in planetary albedo is primarily due to decreases in mid-level clouds across all latitude zones. Goessling *et al.* (2024) found that cloud anomalies were mainly due to reduced low-level clouds. Regions with coherent low-level cloud reductions over the past decade include the warm pool region around the Maritime Continent and the northern extratropical western Pacific, as well as large parts of the Atlantic and adjacent land regions. The reduction of global cloud cover identified in these analyses since 2015 is 1-2 percent.

The issue then becomes the cause of the change in cloud cover. Two explanations have been posited for the declining cloud cover over the past decade:

- Natural climate variability
- Changes in low cloud cover associated with warming sea surface temperatures, implying an emerging positive feedback to climate change (Hansen and Karecha, 2025)

It is not easy to justify a new positive low cloud feedback that began emerging in 2015 since there is no obvious feedback trigger starting at that time. However, there are numerous natural climate signals during this period that are associated with atmospheric circulation changes that can influence the distribution of clouds:

- The 2014-2016 was one of the strongest El Niño events on record
- A cold anomaly beginning in 2015 in the subpolar gyre of the North Atlantic reflects a shift in the ocean circulation pattern associated with decadal variability in the Atlantic (Frajka-Williams *et al.*, 2017; Arthun *et al.* 2021).
- The Pacific Decadal Oscillation positive index peaked in 2016, then declined and has been in negative territory since late 2019
- Eruption of the submarine Hunga-Tonga volcano in 2022

Interannual cloud anomalies associated with the El Niño Southern Oscillation (ENSO) have a significant global signal and strong regional signals, especially over the tropical Indian and Pacific Oceans

The Hunga Tonga eruption is remarkable in its coincidence with the exceptionally low value of planetary albedo in 2023. Goessling *et al.* (2024) found that the cloud perturbations in 2023 showed a different pattern from the overall pattern since 2015, with reduced cloud cover being most pronounced in the northern hemisphere and tropics. Regional reductions in cloud cover were most pronounced over the eastern Indian Ocean, over South America and extending over the eastern Pacific, as well as over northern North America, in the Southern Ocean around 60S, in the subtropical and eastern North Atlantic, and in parts of the North Pacific.

The Hunga Tonga eruption was unusual in that it injected large amounts of water vapor into the stratosphere in addition to sulfate particles. Early publications focused on the impacts to stratospheric circulations and the direct radiative impact. In 2025, papers are emerging that examine the indirect effects of Hunga Tonga on surface climate using ensemble simulations from earth system models (Bednarz *et al.*, 2025; Kuchar *et al.*, 2025). These papers found statistically significant impacts on regional climates that were driven by circulation changes from couplings between the stratosphere and troposphere. These papers indicate the complex interactions between volcanic activity and climate dynamics. More research is needed to untangle any impacts of the Hunga Tonga eruption on the planetary albedo.

In summary, the decline in planetary albedo and the concurrent decline in cloudiness have emphasized the importance of clouds and their variations to global climate variability and change. A change of 1-2 percent in global cloud cover has a greater radiative impact on the climate than the direct radiative effect of doubling CO₂. While it is difficult to untangle causes of the recent trend, the competing explanations for the cause of the declining cloud cover have substantial implications for assessing the Equilibrium Climate Sensitivity and for the attribution of the recent warming. An additional 10 years of data should help clarify whether this is a strong positive cloud feedback associated with warming or a temporary fluctuation driven by natural variability

8.5 Attribution of climate impact drivers

The IPCC (Ranasinghe *et al.* 2021) defines “climate impact drivers” or CIDs as “physical climate system conditions (e.g., means, events, extremes) that affect an element of society or ecosystems.” Hence

CIDs are those features of the weather and climate system of primary interest in assessing the impacts of climate change since they potentially affect humans and the natural world. For instance, under the heading “Heat and Cold,” CIDs are identified as mean air temperature, extreme heat, cold spells and frost. The IPCC also points out that CIDs are not necessarily harm-related: depending on the system in question they can be detrimental, neutral, beneficial or a combination.

The first columns Table 12.12 in Ranasinghe *et al.* (2021, p. 1856), reproduced here as Table 8.1, summarize the AR6 assessment of whether a signal of attributable anthropogenic influence has emerged across all major CIDs. One of the themes of this chapter is that attribution methods used by the IPCC tend to overstate the anthropogenic influence and understate the role of natural variability. Nonetheless a striking feature of that summary table is how few CIDs exhibit an anthropogenic signal sufficient to distinguish them from natural variability.

Out of the 33 weather impact categories listed, an anthropogenic signal is asserted with *high confidence* in only five, and with *medium confidence* in a further four. (Note that one of the CIDs is an increase in CO₂ levels, and since it is a tautology to attribute this to increased CO₂ levels this CID can be ignored.) For the rest the IPCC does not claim to have detected anthropogenic drivers. Of the five *high confidence* assertions, two are for changes in average temperatures (air and ocean) hence are not measures of extreme weather. Further, two of the four *medium confidence* assertions are related to ocean chemistry and thus are likewise not related to extreme weather. The IPCC does not assert a human influence on many non-temperature weather features such as wind, precipitation, flooding, or drought.

Other columns of IPCC Table 12.12 report on whether anthropogenic signals are expected to emerge this century under RCP8.5, the most extreme forcing scenario. We have omitted these columns for several reasons. First, because they refer to whether climate models project detectable signals in the observations, which is a very different question than our concern here: whether a signal has been detected in historical data. Second, as we discuss in Chapter 4, the RCP8.5 scenario is a misleading and implausible high-end storyline, it is not a “base case” or business-as-usual projection. Third, the ensemble of detailed models is acknowledged (Palmer and Stevens 2019) to be “not fit for purpose” in describing regional changes and “unable to represent future conditions at the degree of spatial, temporal, and probabilistic precision with which projections are often provided.” (Nissan *et al.*, 2019). Even with these caveats, we note that the omitted columns in AR6 Table 12.12 show most weather impacts are not expected to exhibit an anthropogenic signal through the end of this century.

Climatic Impact-driver Type	Climatic Impact-driver Category	Already Emerged in Historical Period
Heat and Cold	Mean air temperature	1
	Extreme heat	2
	Cold spell	4
	Frost	
Wet and Dry	Mean precipitation	
	River flood	
	Heavy precipitation and pluvial flood	
	Landslide	
	Aridity	
	Hydrological drought	
	Agricultural and ecological drought	
	Fog weather	
Wind	Mean wind speed	
	Severe wind storm	
	Tropical cyclone	
	Sand and dust storm	
Snow and Ice	Snow, glacier and ice sheet	
	Permafrost	
	Lake, river and sea ice	11
	Heavy snowfall and ice storm	
	Hail	
	Snow avalanche	
Coastal	Relative sea level	
	Coastal flood	
	Coastal erosion	
Open Ocean	Mean ocean temperature	
	Marine heatwave	
	Ocean acidity	
	Ocean salinity	13
	Dissolved oxygen	14
Other	Air pollution weather	
	Atmospheric CO ₂ at surface	
	Radiation at surface	

High confidence of decrease

Medium confidence of decrease

Low confidence in direction of change

Medium confidence of increase

High confidence of increase

Table 8.1: Reproduction of column 1 of Table 12.12, IPCC AR6 Working Group I report. Emergence of anthropogenic signal in historical period for CIDs shown. White: no signal detected. Blue and orange: change detected (decrease or increase) and confidence level as indicated in color legend.

As discussed in Chapter 6 natural variability dominates patterns of extreme weather systems and simplistic assertions of trend detection are frequently undermined by regional heterogeneity and trend reversals over time. Table 8.1 makes the related point that it is not currently possible to attribute changes in most extreme weather types to human influences. Taking wind as an example, the IPCC claims that an anthropogenic signal has not emerged in average wind speeds, severe windstorms, tropical cyclones or sand and dust storms, nor is one expected to emerge this century even under an extreme emissions scenario. The same applies to drought and fire weather.

8.6 Extreme event attribution (EEA)

Examining the IPCC's treatment of extreme weather and climate event attribution more broadly, AR6 provides an ambiguous assessment of the role of anthropogenic warming that differs between its chapters. Chapter 11 of WG1 states (Seneviratne *et al.*, 2021):

Evidence of observed changes in extremes and their attribution to human influence (including greenhouse gas and aerosol emissions and land-use changes) has strengthened since AR5, in particular for extreme precipitation, droughts, tropical cyclones and compound extremes (including dry/hot events and fire weather). Some recent hot extreme events would have been extremely unlikely to occur without human influence on the climate system.

By contrast, as noted in Section 8.5, Chapter 12 of WG1 (Table 12.12) paints a different picture – presumably, the expert judgment of different groups of authors for the two chapters came to different conclusions (Ranasinghe, 2021):

- High confidence in an increase in extreme heat events in tropical regions where observations allow trend estimation and in most regions in the mid-latitudes, medium confidence elsewhere
- Medium confidence in a decrease in extreme cold events in Australia, Africa and most of northern South America where observations allow trend estimation
- No evidence of emergence in the historical period of a change in river floods, heavy precipitation, drought, fire weather, severe wind storms, and tropical cyclones

While the overall issue of detecting changes in extreme weather events and their attribution remains ambiguous, most of the activity in this area relates to the attribution of particular extreme weather events. The most prominent effort is World Weather Attribution (WWA; worldweatherattribution.org), an international research initiative for extreme event attribution that purports to analyze how climate change influences the likelihood and intensity of extreme weather events. Their approach is to use large ensembles of regional climate models to compare an event in today's climate with one in a counterfactual pre-industrial climate without human influences.

WWA has a prominent public presence in linking extreme weather to climate change, with its press releases attracting considerable attention in public and policy discussions. However, the WWA's extensive promotion of non-peer-reviewed findings, its open admission to shaping analyses to serve litigation, and its methodological challenges have sparked controversies, with critics questioning the robustness and impartiality of their conclusions (Pielke Jr. 2024). Despite these issues, WWA's work continues to influence climate science and media narratives. Technical criticisms of the approach include a lack of a formal detection process; an implicit assumption that 100 percent of the post-industrial warming is caused by greenhouse gases; and a failure to adequately account for internal climate variability.

Because EEA is relatively new, many basic methodological issues have yet to be settled in the expert literature. An important challenge is the lack of data. Extreme events are by definition rare. Many analyses of extreme event types (including the U.S. National Assessment Reports) only evaluate data since 1950 or 1970. However, as emphasized by Chapter 6, many of the worst extreme weather and climate events in U.S. history occurred in the first half of the 20th century, including in the early 19th century. And if paleoclimate reconstructions are considered, it becomes very difficult for an event to pass thresholds of what is expected from natural variability, particularly if a reasonably sized geographic region is considered.

Another challenge is defining the event under study. There is a longstanding literature in statistics and econometrics on the challenge of analyzing data with outliers. The issue arises because a data series establishes a probability distribution defining the expected range of observations. If an outlier is observed it might indicate that the underlying process giving rise to the data distribution has changed (which in the weather context would mean that a climate change has been detected) or that the underlying process has multiple regimes each with a different probability distribution, in which case observing an outlier simply means we were temporarily in a different regime, but the system itself was unchanged. If a time series contains only a single outlier event at the end of the series it is not possible to determine which model is the correct one (Chen and Liu 1993). For instance, there might be an “ordinary” weather regime that yields a distribution of summer daytime highs in a particular coastal region, and a second “heatwave” regime that kicks in when an inland blocking event occurs, which yields a temperature distribution centered 15°C higher than the first one. A day with temperatures 13°C above normal would either be an extreme heat anomaly under the first regime or a somewhat cool event under the second, and we have no way in this case of knowing on statistical grounds which view is correct.

Visser and Petersen (2012) and Sardeshmukh *et al.* (2015) both point out that different distributions might fit observed data equally well but yield very different implications about the likelihood of a specific weather event. Visser and Petersen argue that, in view of the deep uncertainties of extreme weather analysis, drawing a connection between individual events and global climate change should be avoided. Furthermore, the existence of an outlier at the end of a data series poses the problem that estimates of the event probabilities will be biased whether the outlier is included or excluded (Barlow *et al.*, 2020). Methods to eliminate the bias have not yet been established, leading some experts (*e.g.* Miralles and Davison 2023) to argue that in settings in which a data series contains a single extreme event at the end, estimation of a return period for the extreme event will be so biased and uncertain that it should be avoided altogether.

We provide a case study of a recent high impact extreme event in the U.S. to illustrate the challenges and ambiguities in attributing the frequency and intensity of extreme weather events to human-caused warming.

8.6.1 Case study – 2021 Western North America heat wave

The 2021 Western North America heat wave was an extreme event that affected much of Western North America in late June 2021. Surface temperature records were set in Portland, OR (116°F; previous record 107°F) and Seattle, WA (108°F; previous record 103°F) (Mass *et al.*, 2024).

The WWA team generated international headlines with their analysis, which provided the following attribution statements (WWA, 2021; Philip *et al.*, 2022):

- Based on observations and modeling, the occurrence of this heatwave was virtually impossible without human-caused climate change.
- The event is estimated to be about a one in 1000-year event in today’s climate.
- The event would have been at least 150 times rarer without human-induced climate change.
- This heatwave was about 2°C hotter than it would have been if it had occurred at the beginning of the industrial revolution (when global mean temperatures were 1.2°C cooler than today).

But an important counter to the first claim is that other researchers concluded from historical weather data that while a heat wave of the magnitude observed was indeed virtually impossible without anthropogenic climate change, it was also virtually impossible *with* climate change. Bercos-Hickey (2022) noted “these temperatures were virtually impossible under any previously experienced meteorological conditions, with or without global warming.” McKinnon and Simpson (2022) stated “the most likely explanation remains that the weather event itself was ‘bad luck.’” The 2023 Oregon Climate Assessment (Fleischman, 2023) concluded that the heat dome would have formed even without climate change and “There is no evidence that the highly unusual combination of weather features that drove the heat dome were made more likely by climate change, and climate models do not project an increase in the frequency of high-pressure ridges over the Pacific Northwest” (Fleischman, 2023, p. 49).

Mass *et al.* (2024) summarizes the proximate sequence of compound events leading to the heat wave. There was a record-breaking mid-tropospheric ridge over the Pacific Northwest, forced by a tropical disturbance in the western Pacific. This produced record-breaking mid-tropospheric temperatures, strong subsidence in the lower atmosphere, low-level easterly flow that produced downslope warming on regional terrain and the removal of cooler marine air, and an approaching low-level trough that enhanced downslope flow. The event occurred at a time of maximum solar insolation, and drier-than-normal soil moisture. Using a storyline approach, Mass *et al.* assessed that there was no trend in drought and dry soils in the Pacific Northwest; there is no evidence of global warming producing stronger ridges of high pressure, and no observed trend in heat waves or record temperatures in the region. They concluded that although anthropogenic warming might have contributed as much as 2°F to the magnitude of the event, there is little evidence of further amplification of the event from increasing greenhouse gases.

Bercos-Hickey *et al.* (2022) conducted a statistical analysis of a model-based attribution study of this heat wave. Because the event is a far outlier and far above the bounds of Generalized Extreme Value distributions fitted from historical data, they concluded that estimates of return times, quantitative changes in event magnitude and frequency, and probability of the extreme temperatures such as provided by the WWA are not accurate and should be interpreted as having low confidence. They found that hindcast attribution methods using an ensemble of regional climate models, combined with Pearl (2009) causal inferences, can provide limited and conditional information about the magnitude of the human influence on this heatwave - they provided a more highly constrained estimate that human activities caused a ~1.4°F–1.8°F increase in the daily maximum temperatures.

Zeder *et al.* (2023) also concluded that the methods employed by Philip *et al.* (2022, the WWA analysis) tend to overstate the rarity of extreme heat waves, leading to a biased perception of the effect of climate change on the heatwave event: “The tendency to overestimate the return period of observed extreme heatwave events may fuel the impression that seemingly impossible heatwave extremes are currently clustering at an unprecedented rate.”

The 2021 Western North America heatwave was a rare and unprecedented compound weather event that broke century-old temperature records by as much as 9°F. While the WWA team received worldwide publicity for their rapid attribution claims blaming anthropogenic climate change, subsequent peer-reviewed analyses showed that the event was caused by rare meteorological conditions that were not made more probable by global warming.

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PART III: IMPACTS ON ECOSYSTEMS AND SOCIETY

9 CLIMATE CHANGE AND U.S. AGRICULTURE

Chapter summary

There has been abundant evidence going back decades that rising CO₂ levels benefit plants, including agricultural crops, and that CO₂-induced warming will be a net benefit to U.S. agriculture. The increase in ambient CO₂ has also boosted productivity of all major U.S. crop types. ~~Various attempts to argue that CO₂-induced warming will harm agriculture do not hold up under scrutiny.~~ There is reason to conclude that on balance climate change has been and will continue to be neutral or beneficial for most U.S. agriculture.

9.1 Econometric analyses

Econometric analyses of the effects of climate change on agriculture have sought to integrate information about long term crop yield changes in response to temperature and precipitation changes under assumptions about adaptive behavior by farmers. One method focuses on variations in agricultural land values. The rationale is that if climate change is a long-term net benefit for agriculture it should be capitalized into higher market values for agricultural land, and vice versa. While individual crops might benefit from, or be harmed by, climate change, once the adaptive responses of farmers are considered the value of farmland represents an index of whether the changes are expected to be beneficial or not. Mendelsohn *et al.* (1994) examined the relationship between historical climatic variations on agricultural land values and concluded global warming would be slightly beneficial to American agriculture.

The Mendelsohn *et al.* method, called Ricardian analysis after David Ricardo, the 19th century British economist who pioneered the study of land values, attracted subsequent criticism from authors who argued it failed to account for differences in land values attributable to fixed locational characteristics like soil quality, and non-climatic changes including nearby urbanization. Deschênes and Greenstone (2007) looked at agricultural profits instead of land values and reached conclusions similar to Mendelsohn *et al.* (1994), namely that past climatic variations had relatively little effect on farm profitability and that warming would likely yield small overall benefits for the U.S. agricultural sector. However, a subsequent exchange with critics led them (Deschênes and Greenstone 2012) to revise their conclusions and project potentially large losses in U.S. agriculture due to climate warming.

Burke and Emerick (2016) looked at temperature variations over 1980 to 2000 and argued that farmers were not as able to adapt to temperature changes as the Ricardian method assumes and that climate change would have large negative impacts on corn and soy yields. Schlenker and Roberts (2009) similarly argued that yield gains to past warming would not carry over to the future and corn and soy yields would sharply decrease this century due to climate change.

Two recent studies have argued that pessimistic findings such as these are not robust. Ortiz-Bobea (2019) argued that land values aggregate farm and non-farm influences and the latter need to be filtered out. He developed a data set using cash rents for agricultural activity as a measure of land value specifically for farming activity. Whereas the land value model implied future losses under climate warming, the same model estimated using cash rents did not, leading the author to conclude the pessimistic results were due to using an inaccurate measure of the returns to farming activity. Bareille and Chakir (2023) assembled a large data base on farm sale prices in France for properties that sold twice between 1996 and 2019. They could replicate pessimistic results showing negative effects of warming on agricultural land values using conventional econometric modeling. But by taking advantage of the repeat sales data, which provides information on site-specific changes in land prices, they found the results reversed and implied that climate change will be very beneficial for French agriculture. The authors concluded that, taking adaptation into

account, a warming climate would yield positive benefits for French agriculture that were between two and 20 times larger than had previously been estimated. On average, with full adaptation, they concluded that climate changes under the medium RCP4.5 scenario could double the value of French farmland by 2100.

A major deficiency of all these studies, however, is that they omit the role of CO₂ fertilization. Climate change as it relates to this report is caused by GHG emissions, chiefly CO₂. The econometric analyses referenced above focus only on temperature and precipitation changes and do not take account of the beneficial growth effect of the additional CO₂ that drives them. As explained in Chapter 2, CO₂ is a major driver of plant growth, so this omission biases the analysis towards underestimation of the benefits of climate change to agriculture.

9.2 Field and laboratory studies of CO₂ enrichment

One of the ways the effect of CO₂ on crop growth has been studied is through “free air enrichment experiments” or FACE plots, in which small sources of CO₂ are placed in fields surrounding plants and the growth response to elevated CO₂ under varying weather conditions are recorded. Ainsworth *et al.* (2020) summarizes results from about 250 such studies. They found that elevation of CO₂ by 200 ppm caused an average 18 percent increase in crop yield in C3 plants. C4 plants exhibited benefits mainly under drought conditions.

In addition to FACE plot experiments there have been thousands of laboratory experiments on the effects of CO₂ on all kinds of plant growth. Here we review some of the results on key U.S. agricultural crops.

Soybean

Studies on the impact of elevated CO₂ on Soybean (*Glycine max* (L.) Merr.) plants in the water-deficient region of Huang-Huai-Hai Plain, China, showed that elevated CO₂ concentrations improved photosynthesis rate, water use efficiency, and growth Li (2013) under both normal conditions and drought conditions. The CO2Science.org website reports on 108 published experiments between 1985 and 2019 exposing soybean to enriched CO₂ levels. Converted to a +300ppm common scale the average growth benefit was +50.9 percent. There were also ten studies reporting on +600 ppm CO₂ enrichment, which increased photosynthesis by an average of 90.3%.

Maize (corn)

The CO2Science.org website reports on 28 published experiments between 1983 and 2018 exposing corn (*Zea mays* L.) to enriched CO₂ levels. Converted to a +300ppm common scale the average growth benefit was +23.7 percent. Corn also benefits from increased drought tolerance under elevated CO₂. An experimental study (Allen Jr., 2011) exposed plants to water stress conditions in sunlit controlled-environment chambers at 360 ppm (ambient) and 720 ppm (elevated) CO₂. The drought stress caused a 41 percent loss of growth under ambient CO₂ but only a 13 percent loss under elevated CO₂.

Wheat

The CO2Science.org website reports on 92 published experiments between 1983 and 2020 exposing common wheat (*Triticum aestivum* L.) to enriched CO₂ levels. Converted to a +300ppm common scale the average growth benefit was +67.6 percent. Blandino (2020) measured both the yield and nutritional quality of an “improver” hybrid wheat variety and its parents under elevated CO₂ levels (+166 ppm). They reported a grain yield increase of +16 percent but a 7 percent decrease in grain protein levels. But they also found that the food quality of different wheat varieties responded differently to elevated CO₂ levels, so that with proper varietal selection, growers could select wheat types that best take advantage of the elevated CO₂.

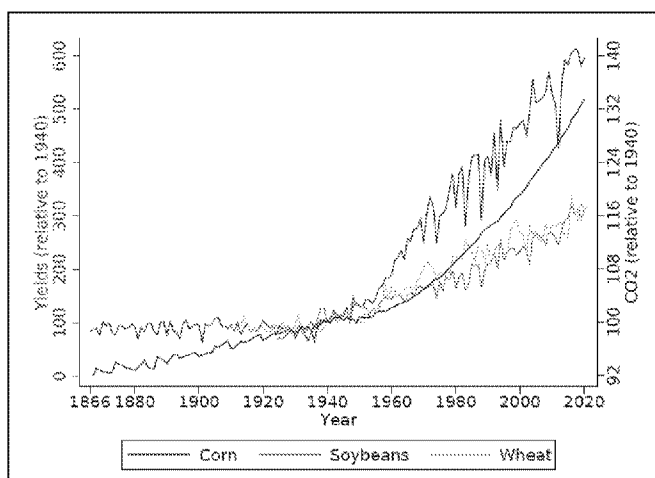


Figure 9.1: U.S. average CO₂ levels and yields of corn, soy and wheat all normalized so 1940=100. Source: Taylor and Schlenker (2021)

Further evidence

A 2021 report from the U.S. National Bureau of Economic Research (Taylor and Schlenker 2021) used satellite-measured observations of outdoor CO₂ levels across the United States, matched to county-level agricultural output data and other economic variables. After controlling for the effects of weather, pollution and technology the authors concluded that CO₂ emissions had boosted U.S. crop production since 1940 by 50 to 80 percent, attributing much larger gains than had previously been estimated using FACE experiments. They found that every ppm of increase in CO₂ concentration boosts corn yields by 0.5 percent, soybeans by 0.6 percent, and wheat by 0.8 percent.

Beyond growth benefits, extra CO₂ boosts plant resilience to dryness. Deryng *et al.* (2016) surveyed evidence on crop water productivity (CWP, the yield per unit of water used), drawing attention to the potential for CO₂ both to enhance photosynthesis and reduce leaf-level transpiration (water loss during leaf respiration). They surveyed all available FACE data on crop yield changes for maize (corn), wheat, rice and soybean, and combined it with crop model data simulating yield responses as of 2080 under the extreme RCP8.5 scenario in four growing regions (Tropics, Arid, Temperate and Cold) each of which were split into rainfed and irrigated sub-regions. In every region they reported that models without CO₂ fertilization predicted CWP losses but CO₂ fertilization more than offset them; once fertilization was taken into account, all regions showed a net CWP gain. Deryng *et al.* also reported that negative yield impacts on wheat and soybean were fully offset by CWP gains and mitigated by up to 90 percent for rice and 60 percent for maize. Similarly, Cheng *et al.* (2017) noted that increased global plant growth from 1982 to 2011 due to rising CO₂ uptake was accompanied by such large gains in CWP that despite the extra biomass global water use by plants had not increased.

Deryng *et al.* (2016) assumed that climate change would “exacerbate water scarcity”. It is noteworthy that while models predict drylands will expand under climate warming, observations show the opposite: greening is happening even in arid areas. Zhang *et al.* (2024) report that due to increased CO₂ levels

“increasing aridity in drylands won’t lead to a general loss of vegetation productivity”; increased desertification will happen in at most 4 percent of currently arid areas.

9.3 Crop modeling meta-analyses

Notwithstanding the abundant evidence for the direct benefits of CO₂ and of CO₂-induced warming on crop growth, in 2023 the U.S. Environmental Protection Agency (EPA 2023) boosted its estimate of the Social Cost of Carbon (SCC) about five-fold based largely on a very pessimistic 2017 estimate of global agricultural damages from climate warming (Moore *et al.*, 2017). One of the two damage models used by the EPA attributed nearly half of the 2030 SCC to projected global agricultural damages based on the Moore *et al.* (2017) analysis. This study was a meta-analysis of crop model studies simulating yield changes for agricultural crops under various climate warming scenarios. Moore *et al.* projected declining global crop yields for all crop types in all regions due to warming.

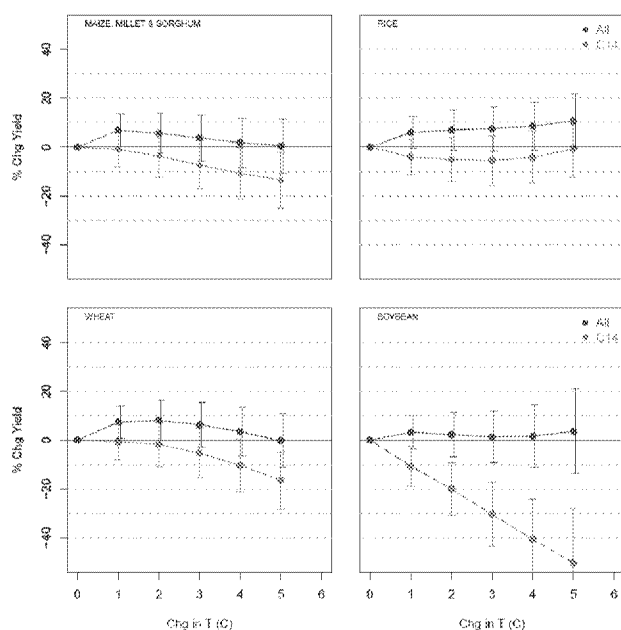


Figure 9.2 Crop yields under CO₂-induced climate warming. Blue: as published in Moore *et al.* (2017). Green: after including omitted data. Source: McKittrick (2025).

McKittrick (2025) re-examined the Moore *et al.* database and found that, while it claimed to cover 1,722 studies, only half the entries ($N=862$) had complete records, so that the sample available for regression analysis was much smaller than both studies indicated. McKittrick noted that the records most commonly missing were the changes in ambient CO₂ and found that in many cases these could be recovered from the underlying studies or the original climate scenario tables, thereby increasing the usable sample size by 40 percent. The crop yield projections incorporating the newly available data changed considerably. As shown

in Figure 9.2, whereas the partial data set implied warming would decrease yield (blue lines), the complete data set implied constant or increase global yields, even out to 5°C warming (green lines).

9.4 CO₂ fertilization and nutrient loss

Evidence has shown that CO₂-induced biomass gains are sometimes accompanied by reductions in the concentrations of protein and other key nutrients such as iron and zinc (Ebi *et al.* 2021). Some experimental evidence has shown that the rising temperatures expected to accompany higher CO₂ levels will offset this loss (Köhler *et al.* 2019) although the evidence for this is mixed, as is the evidence that nutrient dilution observed to date is entirely attributable to higher CO₂ (Ziska 2022). If nutrient dilution does occur under rising CO₂ levels there are several adaptive strategies that could be pursued.

First, selective breeding to raise micronutrient content is already long established (Saltzman *et al.* 2017) and has proven to be a cost-effective agronomic strategy (Ebi *et al.* 2021). Strategies can include both conventional breeding and genetically-modified organisms. An example of the latter is Golden Rice, which contains elevated levels of beta-carotene to boost biosynthesis of vitamin A in the human body. Optimal strategies will be location-specific because they vary by crop, climate and soil type (Ebi *et al.* 2021). Second, fortification of food products with micronutrients is already routine. Folic acid (a B vitamin) is added to flour and many other foods; iodine is added to table salt, most commercial breakfast cereals are fortified with iron and numerous vitamins, *etc.* Third, dietary supplements in the form of multivitamin tablets are inexpensive, widely-available and routinely consumed.

One concern about reliance on adaptive strategies is whether they are feasible in low-income countries. Micronutrient deficiency is already a problem in the developing world and dietary supplements have proven to be an effective low-cost response (Ebi *et al.* 2021). It should also be noted the IPCC emission scenarios that generate high levels of warming do so on the basis of high levels of income growth. The SSP scenarios³ assume that, compared to 2005 levels, global per capita income will double by 2100 in the lowest growth case (SSP3), and in the highest emission case (SSP5) global per-capita income will grow nearly 16-fold. In that scenario even the poorest regions (Africa and the Middle East) end up with a per capita income of about US\$126,000, 70 percent higher than current U.S. per capita income (about US\$75,000). Consequently the same scenarios in which CO₂ levels increase the most are also those in which global poverty is largely eliminated, in which case all countries would be able to afford dietary supplements as necessary to address micronutrient deficiencies, if they arise and cannot be addressed using on-farm agricultural strategies.

In summary, there is abundant evidence going back decades that rising CO₂ levels benefit plants, including agricultural crops, and that CO₂-induced warming will be a net benefit to U.S. agriculture. To the extent nutrient dilution occurs there are mitigating strategies available that will need to be researched and adapted to local conditions.

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³ See compilation at [HYPERLINK "<https://ourworldindata.org/explorers/ipcc-scenarios?Metric=GDP&Sub-metric=Total+radiative+forcing&Region=Global&country=SSP1+-+Baseline-SSP2+-+Baseline-SSP3+-+Baseline-SSP4+-+Baseline-SSP5+-+Baseline>"].

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10 MANAGING RISKS OF EXTREME WEATHER

Chapter summary

Trends in losses from extreme weather and climate events are dominated by population increases and economic growth. Technological advances such as improved weather forecasting and early warning systems have substantially reduced losses from extreme weather events. Better building codes, flood defenses, and disaster response mechanisms have lowered economic losses relative to GDP. The U.S. economy's expansion has diluted the relative impact of disaster costs, as seen in the comparison of historical and modern GDP percentages. Heat-related mortality risk has dropped substantially due to adaptive measures including the adoption of air conditioning, which relies on the availability of affordable energy. U.S. mortality risks even under extreme warming scenarios are not projected to increase if people are able to undertake adaptive responses.

10.1 Socioeconomic context

Risks from human-caused climate change are affected by natural weather and climate variability and are dominated by the exposure of wealth in coastal and other disaster-prone regions and vulnerabilities of poorer populations. The evolution of climate risk in the U.S. has been dominated by societal factors, rather than by changes to the actual weather and climate hazards. Deaths from weather disasters have decreased substantially since 1900, even as U.S. population grew from 76 million in 1900 to over 331 million in 2020 (Goklany 2011). For example, the Galveston hurricane killed over 8,000 people in 1900 (0.01 percent of the U.S. population), whereas the worst recent disaster, Hurricane Katrina in 2005, killed 1,800 people (or 0.0006 percent of the U.S. population) (NOAA National Hurricane Center 2025; U.S. Census Bureau 2025).

Technological advances have substantially reduced losses from extreme weather events. Early warning systems, satellite monitoring, and improved weather forecasting have reduced deaths, although exact numbers are hard to quantify (Deryugina and Hsiang 2023). U.S. weather forecasting has been estimated to reduce losses from weather events with an annualized benefit of \$31.5B, protecting lives, property, and supporting agriculture and transportation (NRC 2010). Improved hurricane forecasts have reduced pre- and post-landfall spending, with annual per hurricane cost reductions estimated at \$5B (Molina and Rudik 2024).

Infrastructure improvements have contributed to substantial reductions in losses from extreme weather events. Building codes, such as those implemented in Florida after Hurricane Andrew (1992), have reduced losses by ensuring structures can withstand high winds and floods. Homes built after 2002 showed minimal damage during Hurricane Michael (2018), unlike older homes (FEMA 2020). Sea walls, like the Galveston Seawall, protect against wave action and storm surge. The New Orleans Hurricane and Storm Damage

Risk Reduction System successfully mitigated storm surge during Hurricane Isaac (2012) (Battelle Memorial Institute 2013). Inland dams in the U.S. help control flooding by storing excess water during heavy rains. It is estimated that the Tennessee Valley Authority (TVA) dams prevent about \$309M in annual flood damage in the TVA region and along the Ohio and Mississippi Rivers (TVA, 2025). During Hurricane Helene (2024), TVA’s strategies prevented approximately \$406M in potential damages (APPA 2024).

10.2 Data challenges

Since 1980, NOAA has provided a count of annual U.S. weather-related disasters that it estimates to have exceeded \$1 Billion (inflation adjusted), showing a substantial increase starting in 2008. NOAA and other government officials have cited the upward trend in the Billion Dollar Disaster series as evidence that climate change is making extreme weather worse (Pielke Jr., 2024). But over time, population and wealth have increased dramatically in the U.S., so when an extreme weather or climate event occurs, there is more damage even if there is no underlying trend in the frequency or intensity of extreme weather. Pielke Jr. (2024) demonstrates that losses per weather disaster as a proportion of GDP have decreased by about 80 percent since 1980, as shown in Figure 10.1. Pielke Jr. (2024) also argued that in addition to relying on opaque data sources and unreported adjustments, NOAA failed to normalize its Billion Dollar Disaster data series properly for changes in population exposure and wealth. In May 2025 NOAA announced it has withdrawn the Billion Dollar Disaster product from publication (Pielke Jr., 2025).

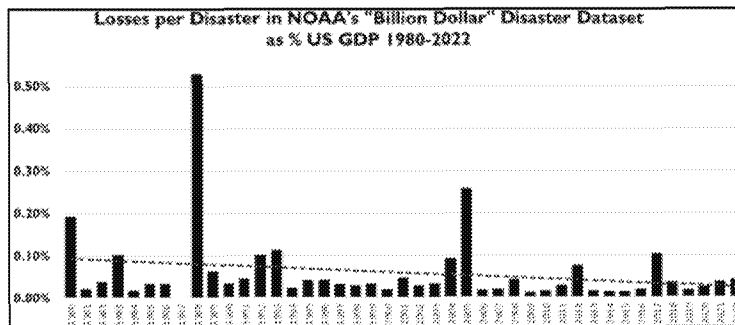


Figure 10.1: Losses per disaster as a % of Gross Domestic Product in NOAA's billion-dollar disaster dataset (the version downloaded in July 2023), 1980 to 2022. Source: (Pielke, Jr. 2024)

In summary, trends in losses from extreme weather and climate events are dominated by population increases and economic growth. Technological advances such as improved weather forecasting and early warning systems have substantially reduced losses from extreme weather events. Better building codes, flood defenses, and disaster response mechanisms have lowered economic losses relative to GDP. Finally, the U.S. economy's expansion has diluted the relative impact of disaster costs, as seen in the comparison of historical and modern GDP percentages.

10.3 Mortality from temperature extremes

10.3.1 Heat and cold risks

Changes in temperature extremes are among the most certain impacts expected in a warming world. It stands to reason that extreme heat events would likely become more frequent while extreme cold events would become less frequent. This pattern is evident in the historical period, though not in the continental U.S. (Chapter 6), and is expected to continue with further warming.

Mortality during heat extremes is typically caused by heat stroke and heat exhaustion, while mortality during cold extremes typically stems from hypothermia and heart strain. Global mortality is substantially greater for cold conditions than for hot conditions (Zhao *et al* 2021, Ritchie 2024). Unlike with heat-related mortality, cold-weather risks set in even at moderately cold conditions (Gasparini *et al.* 2015, Lee and Dessler 2023). The U.S. EPA (citing data from the Centers for Disease Control) reports that on average over 1999 to 2015 there were 2.2 deaths per million Americans for which cold was listed as the main underlying cause and an additional 2.4 deaths per million for which cold was listed as a contributing factor (EPA 2025). By contrast there were 1.3 deaths per million for which heat was the main cause and an additional 0.8 per million for which it was a contributor. By this metric cold accounts for approximately double the weather-related deaths as does heat.

Epidemiological methods that consider correlational evidence, not just death certificate reports, indicate the cold/warm ratio might be much higher. A 13-country study of 74 million deaths from 1985 to 2012 estimated that, on average, 7.7 percent of deaths were attributable to sub-optimal temperatures, of which 7.4 percent were attributable to cold and only 0.4 percent were attributable to heat (Gasparini *et al.* 2015). In other words, cold weather killed 18.5 times as many people as did hot weather.

Figure 10.2 shows the distribution of results from Gasparini *et al.* (2015) by country. For the United States the fraction of deaths attributable to temperature was 5.9 percent, of which 5.5 percent was due to cold, thus cold weather killed 14 times as many people as hot weather.

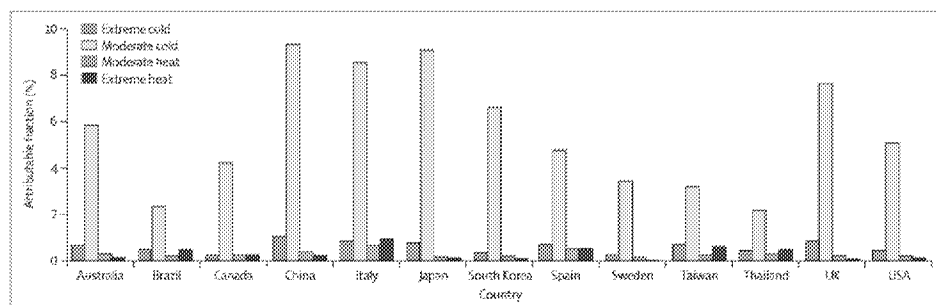


Figure 10.2. Mortality attributable to extreme and moderate cold and heat by country. Source: reproduced from Gasparini *et al.* (2015).

There is strong evidence that people adapt to weather risks. Lee and Dessler (2023) reported that 86 percent of temperature-related deaths across 40 cities in the U.S. were due to cold-related mortality, and

that due to adaptation the relative risk of death declined in hot and cold cities alike as seasonal temperatures increased. Allen and Sheridan (2018) found that short, early-season cold events were 2 to 5 times deadlier than hot events, but the mortality risk of both cold and hot extremes drops to nearly zero if the events occur late in the season.

Davis *et al.* (2003) examined heat-related mortality in 28 U.S. cities from the 1960s to the end of the 1990s and found that heat-related mortality declined by three-quarters over the sample period. Bobb *et al.* (2014) examined mortality data for 106 million people in over 100 U.S. cities and found a 60 percent decline in average heat-related mortality over the period 1987–2005, from 51 per thousand deaths to 19. They furthermore found that the greatest drop was among seniors over the age of 75. In a study of 42 million deaths in 211 U.S. cities from 1962 to 2006, Nordio *et al.* (2015) found a more than 90 percent decline in the risk of mortality from excess heat.

In the context of large declines in heat-related mortality, rising temperatures are associated with a net saving of lives since they reduce mortality from cold events. The IPCC AR6 Working Group 2 Chapter 16.2.3.5 (O'Neill *et al.* 2022) acknowledges that heat-related mortality risk is declining over time:

Heat-attributable mortality fractions have declined over time in most countries owing to general improvements in health care systems, increasing prevalence of residential air conditioning, and behavioral changes. These factors, which determine the susceptibility of the population to heat, have predominated over the influence of temperature change.

Yet the IPCC misrepresents the overall situation in its AR6 Synthesis report. Section A.2.5 of that document states: “In all regions increases in extreme heat events have resulted in human mortality and morbidity (*very high confidence*).” But it is silent on the larger decline of deaths during extreme cold events.

The observed decline in U.S. heat-related mortality has been specifically attributed to adaptation. Wang *et al.* (2018) exploited the spatial variability of heatwave-related mortality across 209 U.S. cities from 1962 to 2006. While simple correlation appeared to imply an increase in mortality risk during heatwaves, accounting for adaptation to heatwave intensity caused the effect to fall to near zero and become statistically insignificant. They used the results of their epidemiological model to project heat-related mortality out to 2050 under four RCP warming scenarios (including RCP8.5) with and without adaptive behavior. Assuming people continue to adapt to the heatwave risks in the regions in which they live, Wang *et al.* (2018) project not only no increase in heat-related mortality, but an overall mortality *decrease* for the U.S. as a whole. They conclude that

Ignoring adaptation would result in a substantial overestimate of future mortality related to heat waves... Accounting for adaptation, the overall heat-related mortality by 2050 would not change substantially over time compared to 2006.

10.3.2 Mortality risks and energy costs

A 2016 study of U.S. long term mortality risks associated with temperature variations (Barreca *et al.* 2016) showed that increases in mortality across the U.S. are associated with both cold weather and hot weather. But over time, the introduction of electricity and the adoption of central heating and air conditioning (AC) dramatically reduced both risks, especially those associated with hot weather. Prior to 1960, a day above 90°F (32°C) added 2.2 percent to the average mortality risk rate, but after 1960 the same

weather added only 0.3 percent to mortality risk, an 85 percent reduction. Prior to 1960 temperatures below 39°F (4°C) added about 1 percent to mortality risk but after 1960 the same weather only added about half that amount. Adaptation through conventional household improvements dramatically reduced public vulnerability to weather extremes. The entire reduction in hot weather mortality was attributable to widespread adoption of indoor AC, which depended on the availability of reliable and affordable electricity.

The corollary of this finding is that the use of heating and cooling systems depends on energy being affordable. Doremus *et al.* (2022) showed that wealthy and poor households in the U.S. adjust their energy expenditures at similar rates in response to moderate temperature swings, but not in response to extreme temperature swings. When temperatures swing to very cold levels (< 5°C) energy spending in high-income households rises by 1.2 percent but in low-income households by only 0.5 percent. On very hot days (>30°C) electricity spending in high-income households rises by 0.5 percent but does not change at all in low-income households. The latter result is observed even in subsamples where all households have AC. Cong *et al.* (2022) report similar findings for a sample of households in Arizona. The implication is that even with widespread adoption of home heating and cooling systems, inability to afford energy leaves low-income households exposed to weather extremes.

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11 CLIMATE CHANGE, THE ECONOMY, AND THE SOCIAL COST OF CARBON

Chapter summary

Economists have long considered climate a relatively unimportant factor in economic growth, a view echoed by the IPCC itself in AR5. Mainstream climate economics has recognized that CO₂-induced warming might have some negative economic effects but they are too small to justify aggressive abatement policy and that trying to “stop” or cap global warming even at levels well above the Paris target would be worse than doing nothing. An influential study in 2012 suggested that global warming would harm growth in poor countries, but the finding has subsequently been found not to be robust. Studies that take full account of modeling uncertainties either find no evidence of a negative effect on global growth from CO₂ emissions or find poor countries as likely to benefit as rich countries.

Social Cost of Carbon (SCC) estimates are highly uncertain due to unknowns in future economic growth, socioeconomic pathways, discount rates, climate damages, and system responses. The SCC is not intrinsically informative as to the economic or societal impacts of climate change. It provides an index connecting large networks of assumptions about the climate and the economy to a dollar value. Some assumptions yield a high SCC and others yield a low or negative SCC (i.e. a social benefit of emissions). The evidence for or against the underlying assumptions needs to be established independently; the resulting SCC adds no additional information about the validity of those assumptions. Consideration of potential tipping points does not justify major revisions to SCC estimates.

11.1 Climate change and economic growth

11.1.1 Overview

It has long been noted that economies tend to do poorly in very cold and very hot regions, with the optimum somewhere in between (Nordhaus, 2006). This implies that warming will tend to be harmful in hot regions but beneficial in cool ones. Temperature-sensitive economic activity migrates, whenever possible, to where it is best suited, and society adapts to the local climate. Based in part on these observations, in 1992 Thomas Schelling, then President of the American Economic Association, argued that any effects of climate change on U.S. economic activity would be small relative to the many other changes that would happen (Schelling 1992).

... Manufacturing rarely depends on climate, and where temperature and humidity used to make a difference, air conditioning has intervened. When Toyota chooses among Ohio, Alabama, and Southern California for locating an automobile assembly, geographical considerations are important, but not because of climate... Finance is little affected by climate; similarly for health care, or education, or broadcasting. Transportation can be affected, but improvements in all-weather landing and take-off in the last 30 years are greater than any differences that climate makes. If the average effect is a warming, iced waterways and snow removal may decline in importance. Construction is affected, mainly by cold, and if the average effect is in the direction of warming, construction may benefit slightly.

It is really agriculture that is affected. But even if agricultural productivity declined by a third over the next half century, the per capita GNP we might have achieved by 2050 we would achieve only in 2051. ...

I conclude that in the United States, and probably Japan, Western Europe, and other developed countries, the impact on economic output will be negligible and unlikely to be noticed.

Thirty years later virtually the identical point was made by the IPCC itself in the Fifth Assessment Report (Arent *et al.* 2014, emphasis added)

For most economic sectors, the impact of climate change will be small relative to the impacts of other drivers. Changes in population, age, income, technology, relative prices, lifestyle, regulation, governance, and many other aspects of socioeconomic development will have an impact on the supply and demand of economic goods and services that is large relative to the impact of climate change.

Evidence since AR5 does not change this assessment. Mohaddes *et al.* (2023) found that warm weather shocks have small negative effects on U.S. state-level output but not income, while cold weather shocks negatively affect both and the impacts are about four times larger, implying a shift to warmer conditions would, if anything, yield a net economic benefit for the U.S.

These statements are validated by experience. Since 1900, the average global surface temperature anomaly warmed 1.3°C, about as much as the IPCC predicts will occur in the next century under a moderate emissions scenario. But even as the globe warmed and the population quintupled, humanity prospered as never before. For example, global average lifespan went from thirty-two years to seventy-two years, economic activity per capita grew by a factor of seven, and the death rate from extreme weather events

plummeted by a factor of fifty. Climate change damage projections typically imply reductions in how much life will improve for humanity, not that it will get worse in an absolute sense (O'Neill 2023).

While extreme weather events are costly, in all modern economies they are becoming steadily less and less important (Formetta and Feyen, 2019). Since 1990 weather-related disaster losses have declined as a proportion of global GDP (Pielke Jr, 2018, 2020) as have mortality risks (Formetta and Feyen, 2019). While economic weather-related insurance payouts are rising, this is fully explained by the growth in the size of the economy and the value of the insured asset stock. Past increases in episodes extreme weather have not had a significant effect (positive or negative) on the market value of insurance firms (Hu and McKittrick, 2015). Nor have past extreme weather events had a significant effect on U.S. banks' performance (Blickle *et al.*, 2021); warming has even been shown to be beneficial for the finance and insurance sector (Mohaddes *et al.* 2023). Figure 11.1 below is illustrative. For these reasons, economists have long been reluctant to endorse attempts to "stop" climate change or even aggressively reduce GHG emissions because the costs would not be worth it. As one critic of the economics of climate policy put it (Storm 2017):

Mainstream climate economics takes global warming seriously, but perplexingly concludes that the optimal economic policy is to almost do nothing about it... The contrast is striking. While climate science is sending out loud-and-clear messages that fossil-fuel disinvestment must start now, letting go of coal and oil and diverting resources into renewable energy technology systems, to keep warming below the 2°C limit (IPCC 2014), mainstream climate economics claims that overly ambitious climate targets will unnecessarily hurt the economy and immediate de-carbonization is too expensive. Most climate economists thus recommend humanity to just wait-and-see.

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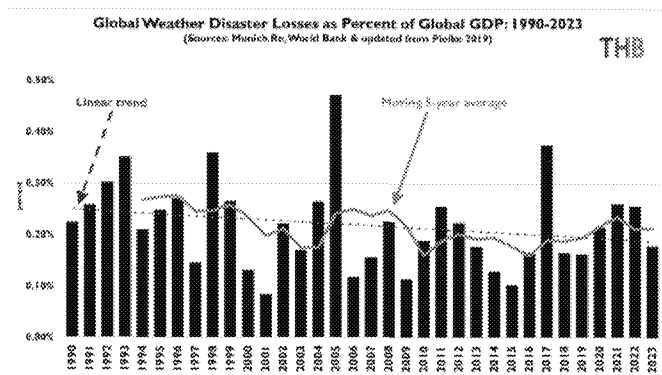


Figure 11.1 Global weather losses as a fraction of GDP. Source: Pielke Jr. (2023)

The mainstream economics position on the climate policy question is best represented by the findings over the past three decades from Integrated Assessment Models (IAMs) of climate change policy, for which Yale economist William Nordhaus was awarded the 2018 Nobel Memorial Prize in economics. IAMs combine economic, climate, and social data into a unified framework for simulating climate damages and evaluating the optimal policy response (Resources for the Future, 2025). Nordhaus' work has generally

supported modest global climate policy, with aggressive measures largely deferred to later in the century. Nordhaus developed the so-called Dynamic Integrated Model of the Climate and Economy model, or DICE, in the early 1990s (Nordhaus, 1993) to study the interaction between climate change, climate policy, and global economic growth over long times. DICE assumes global emission control can be coordinated at no cost and asks what the optimal policy target should be. The climate component of the DICE model is based on simplified climatological modeling. The version of DICE at the time of Nordhaus' Nobel Prize award was described in Nordhaus (2018); it had a climate sensitivity parameter of 3.1°C for CO₂ doubling, consistent with the best estimate in IPCC reports (3.0°C).

The baseline (no policy) scenario incurs only \$0.4T in global abatement costs and leads to \$134.2T (trillion dollars) in global climate damages for a total cost of \$134.6T. The climate model component of DICE projects 4.1°C warming by 2100 relative to preindustrial temperatures. Note that this is a higher estimate of warming than many IPCC climate models.

The Optimal Policy scenario barely deviates from the business-as-usual path. It aims for +3.5°C warming, in other words we modestly scale back fossil fuel use and otherwise just live with almost all the warming. This suggests that most CO₂ emissions are less harmful than the policies that would be necessary to abate them. Trying to prevent warming causes costs quickly to outstrip the benefits. Pursuing a goal of capping warming at 2.5°C creates total costs of \$177.8T, which is \$43.2T worse than doing nothing at all. Nordhaus didn't evaluate trying to reach a Paris-type target of 1.5°C warming but it would be even more costly.

A subsequent edition of DICE includes higher assumed damages from warming which, not surprisingly leads to more aggressive policy recommendations, as explained in the section below on the Social Cost of Carbon.

11.1.2 Empirical analysis of climate change and economic growth

Many other studies have used econometric methods applied to historical data, instead of IAMs, to study the potential impact of climate change on economic growth. Dell *et al.* (2012, herein DJO12) was an influential study that used a multi-country panel of national-level data spanning 1950 to 2005, in which they matched climate and economic data by averaging temperature from the local grid cell level up to the national level using population weights. They found that warming yields an insignificant positive effect on income growth in rich countries but a significant negative effect in poor countries. Moore and Diaz (2015) modified the DICE model to take that finding into account and concluded that it implied a dramatically higher Social Cost of Carbon due to the compounding effects of income loss over time.

A large subsequent literature has debated the robustness of the DJO12 findings. Burke *et al.* (2015) analyzed a global panel with temperatures averaged up to the national level and found a negative effect on growth from warming in rich and poor countries alike when the national average temperature is above 13°C. Zhao *et al.* (2018) used the G-Econ data set of Nordhaus (2006), which breaks economic activity down to the grid cell level, replicated DJO12-type results on the same subset of countries as used in DJO12 but then showed that on the full global sample warming increases growth in rich countries and poor countries alike, though the positive effect in the latter group is confined to where local temperatures are below about 16°C. Greßer *et al.* (2021) developed a regional economic data set for 1,542 sub-national regions around the world between 2005 and 2015 and found temperature had no effect on growth. Yang *et al.* (2023) updated the DJO12 data set and applied an estimator robust to mixed sample frequencies, finding that while temperature shocks exerted a temporary effect on income levels, they did not have a significant lasting effect on growth rates.

Newell *et al.* (2021) noted that there is no underlying theory to guide econometric model specification in this literature. Taking into account the arbitrary choices of which explanatory variables to include they identified over 800 possible model specifications. Using the Burke *et al.* (2015) data they used an estimation method that accounts for model uncertainty and found that the model form preferred by Burke *et al.* (2015), which implied negative effects of warming on growth even in rich countries, is explicitly excluded by the optimal model selection algorithm. Overall they could not detect a temperature effect on GDP or GDP growth, and they estimated the 95 percent confidence interval for the impact on global growth as of 2100 even under the exaggerated RCP8.5 warming scenario spans –86 percent to +388 percent. In other words the net effect is likely positive but too uncertain to distinguish from zero.

Barker (2023) criticized the DJO12 assumption that countries can be grouped into fixed “poor” and “rich” categories based on their incomes many decades ago. He noted that many countries were once poor but became rich over time, and if this is considered the original temperature effects reported by Dell *et al.* became small and insignificant.

Berg *et al.* (2023) argued that countries shouldn’t be grouped into large Rich/Poor categories because they are too heterogeneous. They instead estimated country-specific temperature response coefficients then grouped countries with similar response coefficients into small panels. They separately estimated responses to global and idiosyncratic local temperature shocks to better identify the climate signal in weather data. Overall, they found countries experiencing negative effects of warming on growth outnumbered those experiencing positive effects, but only temporarily: eventually the effects reverse such that about twice as many countries experience a net positive growth effect. They also found global (as opposed to local) temperature changes are much more likely to benefit growth in poor countries than rich ones. In a simulation to 2100, even using the extreme RCP8.5 scenario, they computed the average global GDP loss would be only 1.9 percent compared to a scenario with no warming. That is, instead of the economy growing 400 percent it would grow 392%. The implication of Nordhaus’ earlier analysis is that trying to prevent the warming would lead to far less than 392 percent growth.

To summarize, economists consider climate a relatively unimportant factor in economic growth, a view echoed by the IPCC itself in the Fifth Assessment Report. Mainstream climate economics has recognized that CO₂-induced warming might have some negative economic effects but they are too small to justify aggressive abatement policy, and trying to “stop” or cap global warming even at levels well above the Paris target would be worse than doing nothing. An influential study in 2012 suggested that global warming would harm growth in poor countries but the finding has subsequently been found not to be robust (Tol 2024). Studies that take full account of modeling uncertainties either find no evidence of a negative effect on global growth from CO₂ emissions or find poor countries as likely to benefit from it as rich countries.

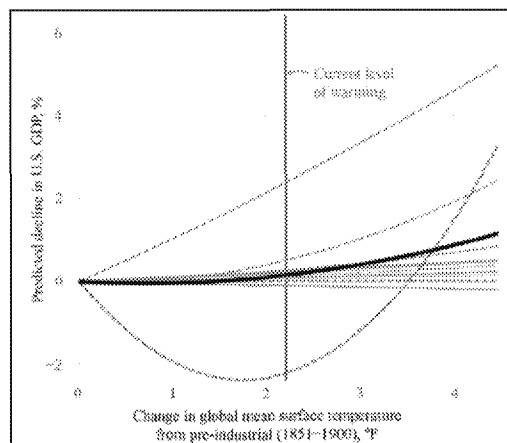


Figure 11.2: Decline in U.S. GDP per degree of warming. Source: CEA-OMB (2023)

The expectation that significant global warming would have a small impact on the U.S. economy was acknowledged quietly by the Biden Administration, even as the President was proclaiming a climate emergency. Figure 11.2, from a 2023 CEA-OMB report, shows the expected decrement in U.S. GDP as a function of temperature rise. The colored lines show the results of a dozen peer-reviewed published studies while the solid black line is their average. The figure could be summarized as “a few percent impact for a few degrees of warming”. Given that the economy’s annual growth rate is expected to be 1-2 percent, the impact of a warming globe on the U.S. GDP is indeed negligible.

11.2 Models of the Social Cost of Carbon

The Social Cost of Carbon (SCC) is a tool for quantifying the economic impact of carbon dioxide emissions, helping policymakers weigh the costs and benefits of climate policies. It estimates the damage caused by emitting one additional ton of CO₂, expressed in dollars. More formally, the SCC is the discounted present value of the current and future marginal loss of economic welfare due to an additional ton of CO₂ entering the atmosphere.

11.2.1 Estimating the SCC

Although the literature refers to “estimates” of the SCC, it is not estimated in the way other economic statistics are estimated. For instance, data on market transactions including prices and quantities can be used to estimate the current inflation rate or the growth rate of per capita real Gross Domestic Product, and there are well-understood uncertainties associated with these quantities. But there are no market data available to measure many, if not most, of the marginal damages or benefits believed to be associated with CO₂ emissions, so these need to be imputed using economic models.

For example, an influential component of some SCC calculations is the perceived social cost associated with a changed risk of future mortality due to extreme weather. There is no market in which people can

directly attach a price to that risk. At best economists can try to infer such values by looking at transactions in related markets such as real estate or insurance, but isolating the component of price changes attributable to atmospheric CO₂ levels is very difficult.

Economists use IAMs to compute the SCC. Two of the best-known are the Climate Framework for Uncertainty, Negotiation and Distribution (“FUND”, Tol 1997) and Nordhaus’ DICE. EPA (2023) introduced new ones for its recent work. IAMs embed a “damage function” or set of functions relating ambient temperature to local economic conditions. The assumptions embedded in the damage function will largely determine the resulting SCC. IAMs also assume a long-term discount rate or, as in DICE, compute the optimal internal discount rate as part of the solution.

One approach to developing a damage function is to begin with estimates of the costs (or benefits) of warming in specific sectors in countries around the world and aggregate up to a global amount. This was the approach used in FUND. An alternative approach is to develop a simple equation that penalizes global income according to a simple quadratic function of the average global temperature. This approach was used in DICE. In the case of the FUND model many hundreds of parameters had to be selected, whereas in DICE only three were needed and were originally chosen to assign a predetermined penalty (1.2%) to global output as of 3°C warming, with a quadratic term implying that damages grow with the square of the global average temperature anomaly. Barrage and Nordhaus (2024) recently changed the parameters to increase the penalty at 3°C to 1.6%, and added a discrete additional 1.0 percent GDP penalty at 3°C warming to account for “tipping points” (discrete large-scale environmental changes triggered by crossing a warming threshold) and a “judgmental adjustment” of 0.5 percent for excluded impacts at 3°C warming. Not surprisingly the newer version of DICE generates much higher SCC estimates than before.

The concepts of estimation and **uncertainty** do not readily apply to SCC calculations. By comparison, the question of whether precipitation has trended up or down along the South Carolina coast for the past hundred years can be addressed by collecting rainfall data, estimating a trend parameter and calculating statistical confidence intervals using methods with well-understood mathematical properties. In this way uncertainty can, in principle, be resolved by collecting more data and applying more accurate methods. But no amount of data collection can change the fact that many components of the SCC are unknown and rely on judgment and opinion based on knowledge of the underlying literature on the physical effects of climate change.

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SCC calculations are thus best thought of as “if-then” statements: *if* the following assumptions hold, *then* the SCC is \$X per tonne. The list of ‘if’ statements includes the premise that the world’s climate and economy work according to the representation in the IAM. One way this might fail to hold is in the timing of warming. Every IAM assumes a value of the Equilibrium Climate Sensitivity (ECS), which controls the amount of warming that results from CO₂ emissions and can be freely varied for the purpose of generating a distribution of SCC values associated with uncertainties over ECS. But as Roe and Baumann (2013) pointed out, time-to-equilibrium increases with the square of ECS, so an upward adjustment of the ECS parameter without an appropriate slowing down of the adjustment process can yield distorted present value damage estimates. In particular, the upper tail of warming associated with some commonly-used ECS distributions is physically impossible for even a thousand years into the future (Roe and Baumann 2013) yet in an IAM would be realized within a couple of centuries. Failure to align ECS with time-to-equilibrium will lead to an overestimate of the SCC value.

11.2.2 Variations in the SCC

Every level of the IAM calculation includes assumptions, some more influential than others. Key assumptions include the following.

- The discount rate: Climate damages accrue over a long time horizon and costs a century or two in the future need to be discounted to the present. The higher the discount rate the smaller the present

value of future damages and vice versa. The discount rate represents the opportunity cost of spending money today rather than investing it and then having more to spend tomorrow. Some economists have argued for the use of very low discount rates in SCC calculations, resulting in policy recommendations that favor relatively large immediate investments in CO₂ emission reductions. The downside is that other investments could potentially earn a larger rate of return for society.

- **Equilibrium Climate Sensitivity:** IAMs have customarily employed a value of 3.0°C or 3.1°C following the IPCC’s guidance. The most recent data-driven ECS values tend to be lower than this (see Chapter 4). Dayaratna *et al.* (2017, 2020, 2023) have shown that use of lower empirically-derived ECS values dramatically lower the resulting SCC estimate, even when low discount rates are used.
- **Damage function coefficients:** IAMs assume CO₂ and warming cause net harms that increase exponentially with temperature. More recently, IAMs have also incorporated effects from assumed potential climate tipping points. The FUND model took limited but explicit account of CO₂ fertilization effects in agriculture. Since the coefficients were selected prior the publication of the current evidence of global greening and the magnitude of benefits to crops from elevated CO₂ (see Chapters 2 and 9) the growth effects are likely understated. The DICE model (and others) did not explicitly include any CO₂ fertilization benefit, except to the extent it was taken into account in the literature consulted when picking the damage function coefficients. The damage function in FUND contains a region in which low warming yields net benefits in many regions, a finding which is supported by econometric models of warming and growth (Berg *et al.* 2023) and econometric simulations of agricultural changes (McKittrick 2025). The DICE damage function, by construction, rules out net benefits at any warming level.
- **Emission scenarios:** IAMs generate SCC estimates that increase as the pre-existing concentration of CO₂ increases. Consequently the value of damages later in the century will be higher, depending on the assumed baseline emissions over the coming decades.

* ~~Abatement costs:~~ Some IAMs (such as DICE) ~~represent~~ include the cost to the economy of reducing CO₂ emissions in order to identify the SCC along an optimal growth path. If CO₂ emission reductions are assumed to be inexpensive, then the model will conclude that the optimal policy should aim for deeper emission cuts and vice versa.

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It is informative to ascertain whether SCC results are invariant to changes in some assumptions. But when different assumptions result in higher or lower SCC values, the change in the SCC value does not provide *prima facie* evidence about the validity of the assumptions. For example, in 2023 the U.S. Environmental Protection Agency raised its preferred SCC value about 5-fold over the estimates it had issued ten years earlier. **This is not because new data had been collected or better mathematical methods had been invented, but because new assumptions had been used, and the validity of those assumptions was a separate question. If they used the same assumptions they’d have gotten the old results back (p. 81)** One was that global agricultural damages were far higher than previously assumed, based on an analysis in Moore *et al.* (2017). But as discussed in Chapter 9, McKittrick (2025) showed that Moore *et al.* (2017) had used a database in which half the CO₂ change observations were missing. When as many of those observations as possible were recovered from underlying sources and the analysis was rerun, the projected crop yield losses disappeared and turned into gains at all warming levels. Hence the portion of the EPA’s SCC revision attributable to agricultural yield losses was unwarranted.

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11.2.3 Evidence for low SCC

Chapter 2 reviewed evidence on climate change and greening, and Chapter 9 looked at climate change and U.S. agriculture. Evidence shows that CO₂ fertilization has a stronger beneficial effect on agriculture than was known at the time that IAMs like DICE and FUND were parameterized. Haverd *et al.* (2020) found the observed CO₂ fertilization rate has been almost double what had been predicted by crop models

Dayaratna *et al.* (2023) used the updated empirical ECS distribution estimate of Lewis (2022), which assimilates modern instrumental and paleoclimatic temperature records, and allowed for a 30 percent gain in the CO₂ fertilization benefit in the FUND model, and found that, even at a low discount rate of 2.5 percent, the median SCC as of 2050 is only \$18.67, with a 24 percent probability of the true value being negative. At a five percent discount rate the median SCC value is negative until the mid-2040s and at 2050 was only \$0.37 with a 49 percent probability of being negative. Thus, under reasonable assumptions a mainstream IAM using updated scientific inputs yields evidence consistent with the SCC not being significantly greater than zero.

It should also be noted that the SCC is focused on the social costs of CO₂ emissions from fossil fuel use. It ~~does~~ is not intended to measure the private marginal benefits to consumers and society from the availability of fossil fuels. Public willingness to pay for fuels of all types indicates the value to society of reliable, abundant fossil energy. Tol (2017) estimates that the private benefit of carbon is large relative to the social cost. This can be illustrated by noting that the price of a gallon of gas indicates the marginal value to the consumer of the fuel. Suppose we assume a relatively high Social Cost of Carbon of, say, \$75 per tonne. Deflated by a MCPF⁴ value of 1.5 that would result in a carbon tax of \$50 per tonne, which equates to about 44 cents per gallon of gas (Lavelle, 2019). A pre-tax price of \$3.00 per gallon would imply the marginal social benefit of the fuel is nearly seven times the marginal social cost.

11.2.4 Tipping points

SCC calculations typically consider gradual impacts of a warming climate, such as slowly-melting glaciers and increasing average temperature. A driver of potentially high values of the Social Cost of Carbon (SCC) is the introduction into models of discrete catastrophic outcomes associated with abrupt changes (Dietz *et al.*, 2021). They are often referred to as “tipping points.”

The term “tipping point” mingles two different physical concepts that pose different research challenges. Many physical systems are inherently stable unless acted upon with sufficient external energy. For example, an ice cap might remain intact over a wide range of temperatures but once the temperature crosses the 0°C threshold it melts. Such discontinuities are ubiquitous in nature and require an external force. Whether the force needs to be large relative to the size of the system depends on the underlying stability of the system.

A different type of tipping point is called a *bifurcation* and arises from the study of the internal dynamics of nonlinear systems (Crawford, 1991). Many systems have been observed to have more than one equilibrium point and can move between them with minimal or no external influence. For example, a weather system might have two different equilibrium states: one calm and one with a tornado. A transition from one to another can happen either with no external force or with a minuscule change, such as a flap of the proverbial butterfly’s wings (Shen *et al.* 2014). The term “tipping point” is sometimes used to mean a bifurcation of this type and implies instability inherent in the system itself, which is not necessarily dependent on outside forces. It depends, instead, on parameters of the system taking values that support the emergence of bifurcations (Crawford, 1991).

The two different concepts imply different research questions. Regarding the first we are interested in whether components of the climate system are susceptible to abrupt discontinuities in response to sufficiently-large anthropogenic forcing. Regarding the second we are interested in whether the Earth’s climate system has inherent bifurcations that imply the possibility of abrupt transitions with or without external forcing.

Models have been developed that imply the second type is a possibility. Kypke *et al.* (2020) presented a simple climate model in which the GHG concentration is one of the parameters that controls the

⁴ Marginal Cost of Public Funds: the optimal carbon tax rate is the SCC divided by the MCPF (Sandmo 1977).

emergence of bifurcations of the Arctic climate to one with both cold and warm equilibria. If sufficiently high GHG forcing combined with a sufficiently high rate of ocean heat transport are imposed a bifurcation becomes possible. More generally GCMs have been observed to contain bifurcations and multiple equilibria (Brunetti and Ragon, 2023).

The possible existence of bifurcations in the Earth's climate system implies abrupt transitions are possible, not just in response to large forcing but also to small perturbations. This places tipping points into the category of low-likelihood and potentially catastrophic events, such as large meteor strikes. A key question to ask is whether those kinds of tipping points can be predicted. Current research has not resolved that question (Dakos *et al.*, 2024) and indeed might not be able to since one implication of the “butterfly effect” is the existence of predictability boundaries of nonlinear systems (Palmer *et al.*, 2014). It is therefore not obvious how to incorporate such possibilities into SCC calculations. Small variations in assumptions will lead to arbitrarily large variations in the resulting SCC with no grounds for choosing among them. If such tipping points are possible the most appropriate stance for economic policy is to maximize resilience to any form of external catastrophe since it is unlikely we could predict it or prevent it from happening.

AR6 (WGI, Chapter 1) focuses mainly on the first type of tipping point, namely an abrupt change in response to external forcing. This is also the meaning associated with popular usage of the “tipping point” concept in discussions of climate change (see [[HYPERLINK "https://report-2023.global-tipping-points.org/what-is-a-tipping-point/"](https://report-2023.global-tipping-points.org/what-is-a-tipping-point/)] for example). As summarized by AR6, there is evidence of abrupt change in the paleoclimate record, and some of these events have been interpreted as tipping points. Some projections with Earth System Models for example have produced tipping points such as Amazon forest dieback in response to specified values of CO₂ concentration or temperature increases.

The alarm surrounding climate tipping points is reflected by *The Global Tipping Points Report* that was launched at the COP28 on 6 December 2023 (Lenton *et al.*, 2023). It identifies more than 25 parts of the climate system said to constitute tipping points. What gets classified as a climate “tipping point” is a moving target. The most common examples in the literature and assessment reports include: Greenland ice sheet disintegration, West Antarctic ice sheet disintegration, summertime disappearance of Arctic sea ice, Amazon rainforest dieback, coral reef dieoff, thawing of permafrost and methane hydrates, Atlantic Meridional Overturning Circulation collapse, boreal forest shift, West African monsoon shift, and Indian Monsoon shift.

All such tipping points require a certain amount of system instability in order to exhibit an abrupt transition in response to warming. For this reason there seems to be very little to discriminate between a tipping event and natural climate variability. Natural climate variability has in the past produced shifts in the West African and Indian monsoons, Amazon forest and coral reef dieback, and disintegration of parts of the Greenland and West Antarctic ice sheets. These impacts can reverse on the decadal and century timescales associated with natural climate variability and ecosystem responses.

Some abrupt changes are potentially more consequential, including collapse of the West Antarctic ice sheet and collapse of the Atlantic Meridional Overturning Circulation (AMOC). AR6 WGI Summary for Policy Makers states:

The Atlantic Meridional Overturning Circulation is very likely to weaken over the 21st century for all emission scenarios. While there is *high confidence* in the 21st century decline, there is only *low confidence* in the magnitude of the trend. There is *medium confidence* that there will not be an abrupt collapse before 2100. (C.3.4)

There is limited evidence for low-likelihood, high-impact outcomes (resulting from ice-sheet instability processes characterized by deep uncertainty and in some cases involving tipping points) that would strongly increase ice loss from the Antarctic Ice Sheet for centuries under high GHG emissions scenarios (e.g., SSP5-8.5). (B.5.2)

For the purpose of SCC calculations, the research question implied by this type of tipping point is whether such events have been observed in the past in climate conditions similar to what we currently experience or will in the near future. AR6 finds little evidence for impending collapse of the Atlantic Meridional Overturning Circulation or the West Antarctic ice sheet. It finds there is no tipping point associated with Arctic Sea ice (AR6 Technical Summary p. 76)

Dietz *et al.* incorporated several potential tipping points (abrupt changes) into an SCC model and found they added about 25 percent to the estimate, mainly associated with thawing permafrost and release of methane hydrates. However, the IPCC considers this scenario *very unlikely* (AR6 Technical Summary p. 107).

In summary, there might be unknown bifurcation tipping points that are associated with natural climate processes, but this possibility does not translate into specific guidance on the SCC. There are potential abrupt change points in the climate system in response to warming, although the IPCC assigns low probabilities to most, including the largest ones. When these have been considered, the result is only a modest increase in the SCC value in the 21st century.

11.2.5 Are there alternatives?

It is increasingly being argued that the SCC is too variable to be useful for policymakers. Cambridge Econometrics (Thoung, 2017) stated it's "time to kill it" due to uncertainties. The UK and EU no longer use SCC for policy appraisal, opting for "target-consistent" carbon pricing (UK Department for Energy Security and Net Zero 2022, Dunne 2017). However, the uncertainty of SCC estimates doesn't mean that other regulatory measures/instruments are inherently better or more efficient. Many emissions regulations (such as electric vehicle mandates, renewable energy mandates, energy efficiency regulations and bans on certain types of home appliances) cost far more per tonne of abatement than any mainstream SCC estimate, which is sufficient to establish that they fail a cost-benefit test.

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12 GLOBAL CLIMATE IMPACTS OF U.S. EMISSIONS POLICIES

Chapter Summary

U.S. policy actions are expected to have undetectably small direct impacts on the global climate and any effects will emerge only with long delays.

12.1 The scale problem

The emissions rates and atmospheric concentrations of criteria air contaminants are closely connected because their lifetimes are short and their concentrations are small; when local emissions are reduced the local pollution concentration drops rapidly, usually within a few days. But the global average CO₂ concentration behaves very differently, since emissions mix globally and the global carbon cycle is vast and slow. Any change in local CO₂ emissions today will have only a very small global effect, and only with a long delay.

Following the emission of a pulse (release) of CO₂ into the atmosphere only about 40 ± 15 percent of the extra CO₂ will have been sequestered after twenty years. That fraction rises to 75 ± 10 percent after a thousand years, and the remainder will be gradually removed over the ensuing tens of thousands of years (Ciais *et al.*, 2013, pp. 472-473). Consequently, any reduction in U.S. emissions would only modestly slow, but not prevent, the rise of global CO₂ concentration. And even if global emissions were to stop tomorrow, it would take decades or centuries to see a meaningful reduction in the global CO₂ concentration and hence human influences on the climate.

Reducing the atmospheric stock of CO₂ would require emissions to fall below the natural sequestration rate, assuming the entire increase is anthropogenic. Since that rate has been averaging about 50 percent of emissions in recent decades, a reduction of global emissions by 50 percent would (at least temporarily) halt the rise in atmospheric CO₂. The 1997 Kyoto Protocol proposed to cap industrial nations' CO₂ emissions at a modest five percent below 1990 levels by the year 2012. Even though this policy was too difficult for most nations to implement, full compliance would not have substantially reduced atmospheric CO₂ levels. It would only have slightly slowed CO₂ growth, reaching the projected year 2100 level in 2105 instead (Wigley, 1998). Lomborg (2016) estimated that full compliance with the initial commitments in the Paris Accord would not stop warming, it would only prevent about 0.1C warming and delay hitting the baseline year 2100 temperature levels by about a decade.

Thus, in contrast with conventional air pollution control, even drastic local actions will have negligible local effects, and only with a long delay. The practice of referring to unilateral U.S. reductions as "combating climate change" or "taking action on climate" on the assumption we can stop climate change therefore reflects a profound misunderstanding of the scale of the issue.

12.2 Case study: U.S. motor vehicle emissions

The scale problem can be illustrated with reference to U.S. motor vehicles. The EPA's 2009 Endangerment Finding focused on CO₂ emissions from cars and light-duty trucks in the U.S. because Section 202(a) of Clean Air Act mandates the EPA to set emissions standards for motor vehicles if pollutants are found to endanger public health or welfare. The 2009 Endangerment Finding therefore obligated the EPA to regulate emissions from new motor vehicles, ostensibly to reduce or eliminate climate-related harms to the U.S. public.

Two questions that naturally arise are: (1) How large a reduction in CO₂ emissions would result from such regulation? and (2) What would be the climate impact of such regulation?

The first question can be addressed by comparing U.S. vehicle-based CO₂ emissions to the global total. The second question can be addressed by using the fact that the reduction in global warming would be, according to the models relied upon by the EPA, proportional to the reduction in global emissions, keeping in mind that the change in the CO₂ content of the atmosphere in any given year is the result of total global CO₂ emissions, not just U.S. emissions.

In 2022, the emissions from U.S. cars and light duty trucks totaled 1.05 billion metric tons of carbon dioxide (GtCO₂, EPA 2024). Meanwhile global CO₂ emissions from energy use totaled 34.6 GtCO₂ (Energy Institute 2024). Hence U.S. cars and light trucks account for only 3.0 percent of global energy-related CO₂ emissions. To a first approximation we can say that even eliminating *all* U.S. vehicle-based emissions would retard the accumulation of CO₂ in the atmosphere by a year or two over a century.

It would also reduce the overall warming trend by at most about 3 percent. For the period 1979-2023, which has the most extensive global coverage of a variety of weather data types, warming trends are determined to a precision of about ± 15 percent, so the impact of reducing the rate of global warming by eliminating U.S. vehicle CO₂ emissions would be far below the limits of measurability. Given that global-average temperature is the most direct climate change metric, impacts on any secondary climate metrics (e.g. severe weather, floods, drought, etc.) from reducing U.S. vehicle CO₂ emissions would be even less measurable.

Consequently, in contrast to the case of local air contaminants like particulates and ozone, even the most aggressive regulatory actions on GHG emissions from U.S. vehicles cannot be expected to remediate alleged climate dangers to the U.S. public on any measurable scale.

12.3 Concluding thoughts

The report supports a more nuanced and evidence-based approach for informing climate policy that explicitly acknowledges uncertainties. The risks and benefits of a climate changing under both natural and human influences must be weighed against the costs, efficacy, and collateral impacts of any 'climate action', considering the nation's need for reliable and affordable energy with minimal local pollution. Beyond continuing precise, un-interrupted observations of the global climate system, it will be important to make realistic assumptions about future emissions, re-evaluate climate models to address biases and uncertainties, and clearly acknowledge the limitations of extreme event attribution studies. An approach that acknowledges both the potential risks and benefits of CO₂, rather than relying on flawed models and extreme scenarios, is essential for informed and effective decision-making.

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GLOSSARY

2XCO₂: Doubling of the atmospheric carbon dioxide (CO₂), a commonly used baseline for addressing climate change. In 2025, atmospheric CO₂ concentrations were approximately 50 percent of the way to 2XCO₂ compared to 1800.

ABATEMENT: In the context of environmental policy, the reduction of emissions.

ACE (Accumulated Cyclone Energy): A statistical measure of a tropical cyclone's energy accumulated over its lifetime, calculated from a summation of the square of maximum sustained wind speeds.

ACIDIFICATION: A commonly used term for the reduction in ocean pH from more alkaline to less alkaline values.

ACRIM (Active Cavity Radiometer Irradiance Monitor) GAP: the gap in total solar irradiance data between 1989 and 1991 caused by a delay in the launch of a satellite-borne monitor in time to overlap and intercalibrate with the prior system.

AEROSOLS: Tiny solid or liquid particles suspended in the air.

ALKALINE: Having a chemical pH greater than 7.0. The "opposite" of acidic, which means a pH less than 7.0.

AMBIENT: Relating to the immediate surroundings of something.

AMO: Atlantic Multidecadal Oscillation, a 60-year cycle of sea surface temperatures in the North Atlantic.

ANTHROPOGENIC: Created by humans.

AR (Assessment Reports): Periodic assessments published by the Intergovernmental Panel on Climate Change evaluating current knowledge of the climate system, global change, and associated issues. An AR now consists of reports from three working groups, the first (WG1) concerned with physical science and the others concerned with societal impacts and mitigation strategies. The most recent was AR6.

ATTRIBUTION: Assertion of a causal relation, chiefly from anthropogenic GHG emissions to observed climate patterns.

AUTOCORRELATION: The phenomenon in which the current value of a random time series variable is correlated with its value in a previous time period.

BIOMASS: The total quantity or weight of organic matter in a given area or volume.

CARBON: The 6th element in the periodic table. Popularly used as a shorthand term for carbon dioxide.

CMIP (Coupled Model Intercomparison Project): The Intergovernmental Panel on Climate Change's organized effort to compare many different global ocean-atmosphere climate models when they are all forced with the same emissions scenario(s). The two most recent were the CMIP5 and CMIP6 for, respectively, AR5 and AR6.

CLIMATE CHANGE: A change in climate due to human influences, as opposed to climate variability which is natural in origin.

CONUS: The contiguous 48 U.S. states.

DICE (Dynamic Integrated model of the Climate and Economy): An Integrated Assessment Model developed by William Nordhaus in 1993.

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DISCOUNT RATE: The interest rate used to convert future costs and benefits into their present value. Varies inversely with present value so a high discount rate reduces the present value of future costs and benefits.

DRY ICE: Frozen carbon dioxide.

ECONOMETRICS: The branch of economics concerned with the use of statistical methods (chiefly multiple regression) to analyse economic systems.

ECS (Equilibrium Climate Sensitivity): The total amount of eventual global-average surface warming in response to a hypothetical doubling of the atmospheric CO₂ concentration compared to pre-Industrial levels.

EL NIÑO: The warm phase of the El Niño – Southern Oscillation, involving weaker upwelling of cold water off the South American coast and weaker Pacific trade winds.

EMISSIONS SCENARIO: An assumed scenario of future greenhouse gas emissions (or resulting atmospheric concentrations) based upon assumptions regarding global economic activity, the prevalence of fossil fuel use, and (sometimes) global carbon cycle model estimates of the rate of CO₂ uptake by land and ocean.

ENDANGERMENT FINDING (EF): The 2009 finding by the Administrator of the Environmental Protection Agency that emissions of well-mixed greenhouse gases (primarily CO₂) endanger human health and welfare.

ENSO: El Niño – Southern Oscillation, a prominent natural climate fluctuation involving year-to-year variations in the upwelling of cold water off the equatorial coast of South America and associated strengthening or weakening of trade winds across the Pacific Ocean.

FACE: (Free-Air CO₂ Enrichment) Large-scale open-air studies that expose plants to elevated CO₂ levels, simulating future climate scenarios.

FOSSIL FUEL: A natural hydrocarbon fuel such as coal, oil, or natural gas formed in the geological past from the remains of living organisms.

FUND (Framework for Uncertainty, Negotiation, and Distribution): An Integrated Assessment Model developed by Richard Tol in 1997.

GBR (Great Barrier Reef): The world's largest coral reef ecosystem located off the northeast coast of Australia.

GDP (Gross Domestic Product): Total market value of all the final goods and services produced within a country's border, usually over one year.

GHCN (Global Historical Climatology Network): A time-varying number of globally distributed weather stations making hourly, daily, or monthly measurements of precipitation, temperature and sometimes snowfall and snow depth.

GLOBAL GREENING: The satellite-observed increase in greenness in most vegetated land areas observed since the early 1980s.

GNP (Gross National Product): Total market value of all the final goods and services produced by the citizens of a country, including exports and imports, usually over one year.

GDP (Gross National Product): Total market value of all the domestically-produced final goods and services produced by the citizens of a country, usually over one year.

GREENHOUSE EFFECT (GHE): The tendency for any planetary atmosphere containing greenhouse gases to be warmer in the lowest layers than if those gases did not exist.

GREENHOUSE GAS (GHG): An atmospheric gas that absorbs and emits infrared radiation, especially water vapor, CO₂, and methane.

GROSS PRIMARY PRODUCTION: The total chemical energy used by plants during photosynthesis over a specified period of time. Net Primary Production is the residual after using the energy required for respiration and represents the contribution to biomass growth.

HURST PHENOMENON: See long term persistence.

HYDROLOGY: The study of the movement of water, especially on land and in the atmosphere.

IAM (Integrated Assessment Model): A computerized tool that combines economics, climate science, and social sciences to provide quantitative relationships between human and Earth systems, helping to inform policy decisions.

IEA (International Energy Agency): A Paris-based intergovernmental organization, established in 1974, that provides policy recommendations, analysis and data on the global energy sector.

IPCC (Intergovernmental Panel on Climate Change): A panel of international experts and governmental representatives established by the United Nations and World Meteorological Organization in 1988 to provide governments at all levels with scientific information that they can use to develop climate policies.

IR (Infrared): Heat radiation that all solid objects and greenhouse gases emit by virtue of their temperature.

LA NIÑA: The cool phase of ENSO, involving stronger upwelling of cold water off the South American coast and stronger Pacific trade winds.

LONG TERM PERSISTENCE (LTP, or HURST PHENOMENON): A form of autocorrelation in which random fluctuations induce long term but not permanent changes in the mean value of a series, which shows up in some climate data series as cyclical or trending patterns on short time scales.

MAIZE: Corn.

MODEL: A computer code or collection of codes which quantify our knowledge of various processes and the interactions between those processes.

MORTALITY: Death or number of deaths, usually expressed for a specific population and period.

NCA (National Climate Assessment): A periodic report mandated by the Global Change Research Act of 1990 summarizing the impact of climate change on the United States. There have been five NCA reports: NCA1 (2000), NCA2 (2009), NCA3 (2014), NCA4 (2017-18), and NCA5 (2023).

OECD (Organization for Economic Cooperation and Development): A group of 38 member countries that have a democratic system of government and free economic systems.

PALEOCLIMATE: Climate of the distant past, before modern weather instruments were widely used (typically pre-1850), necessitating the use of “proxy” measurements such as tree rings, ice core, pollen records, etc.

PDI (Power Dissipation Index): A statistical estimate of the accumulated destructive potential of a tropical cyclone over time, calculated as a summation of the cube of the maximum sustained wind speeds.

PDO: Pacific Decadal Oscillation, a recurring ocean-atmosphere interaction centered over the Pacific basin associated with predominantly warm or cool patterns that influence the global climate.

PHOTOSYNTHESIS: The process by which plants grow, requiring carbon dioxide, water, and light at sufficiently warm temperatures (10 to 35 deg. C for optimal function).

PPM: Parts per million, a measure of the concentration of a substance in (for example) the atmosphere

PRE-INDUSTRIAL: The near-term historical period before which human greenhouse gas emissions were considered significant, usually assumed to be the mid-1700s.

RADIATIVE FEEDBACK: A change in the balance between absorbed solar radiation and emitted infrared (IR) radiation, referenced to the top of the atmosphere, caused by changes in surface temperature.

RADIATIVE FORCING: The change in the balance between absorbed solar radiation and emitted infrared (IR) radiation, referenced to the top of the atmosphere, caused by changes in greenhouse gases, anthropogenic aerosols, volcanoes, etc.

RCP (Representative Concentration Pathway) SCENARIOS: Different scenarios for future greenhouse gas emissions and their impact on the atmosphere, introduced in the IPCC's Fifth Assessment Report (AR5). RCP scenarios have a number label (e.g. RCP6.0) indicating how much radiative forcing they assume in 2100 relative to pre-Industrial times, in Watts per square meter. RCP4.5 and RCP6.0 are intermediate scenarios, whereas RCP8.5 is an extreme scenario with very large future emissions of greenhouse gases.

REGRESSION: A statistical method for selecting the coefficients of a linear equation to explain the behaviour of a dependent variable in terms of variations in one or more explanatory variables.

RICARDIAN ANALYSIS: A method used in environmental economics named after David Ricardo to estimate the economic impacts of climate change, particularly on agriculture, by making use of the hypothesis that expected changes in the return to future agricultural activity will be capitalized into current land values.

SCC (Social Cost of Carbon): An estimate of the net economic damages, measured in present-value dollars, caused by emitting one additional ton of CO₂ into the atmosphere.

SSP (Shared Socioeconomic Pathway) SCENARIOS: Different scenarios for future greenhouse gas emissions and their impact on the atmosphere, introduced in the IPCC's Sixth Assessment Report (AR6). Some of the SSP scenarios are analogous to the older RCP scenarios, for purposes of continuity and comparison to earlier climate model assessments.

TC: Tropical cyclone.

TMAX: The daily maximum surface air temperature.

TMIN: The daily minimum surface air temperature.

TOA: Top of atmosphere.

TONNE: Metric ton.

TOXICOLOGY: The study of the adverse effects of chemical substances on living organisms.

TREND: A coefficient, usually estimated using linear regression, representing the slope of a line of best fit through a time series of data, indicating any tendency for the series mean to move up or down over time.

TSI (Total Solar Irradiance): The measure of the total amount of incident solar radiation per unit area, including all wavelengths of electromagnetic radiation, that reaches the Earth's atmosphere. Typically shown in units of watts per square meter (W/m²).

UHI (Urban Heat Island): The tendency for inhabited areas to be warmer than their rural surroundings, due to the replacement of natural land and vegetation with roads, parking lots, buildings, and waste heat sources.

USHCN: The U.S. Historical Climatology Network, consisting of quality-controlled temperature and precipitation data from 1,218 surface weather stations.

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Figure 2.1 Screen shot from Figure 3 of Zhu *et al.* 2016 [HYPERLINK "<https://www.nature.com/articles/nclimate3004>"]

Figure 2.2 Data replotted from Berner 2006 Figure 18, with annotation in red added by authors [HYPERLINK "<https://www.sciencedirect.com/science/article/pii/S0016703706002031>"]

Figure 2.3 Screen shot from Gerhart and Ward (2010) Figure 2 [HYPERLINK "<https://nph.onlinelibrary.wiley.com/doi/pdf/10.1111/j.1469-8137.2010.03441.x>"]

Figure 2.4 Screenshot from Copernicus Marine Services [HYPERLINK "https://data.marine.copernicus.eu/product/GLOBAL_OMI_HEALTH_carbon_ph_area_averaged/description"]

Figure 2.5 Screen shot from AIMS (2023) Figures 2-4 [HYPERLINK "https://www.aims.gov.au/sites/default/files/2022-08/AIMS_LTMP_Report_on%20GBR_coral_status_2021_2022_040822F3.pdf"]

Figure 3.1.1 Screen shot of AR6 WGI Ch2 Fig 10

Figure 3.1.2 Screen shot of AR6 WGI Ch7 Fig 7-6

Figure 3.1.3 Author created figure. CO2 data source: [HYPERLINK "<https://gml.noaa.gov/ccgg/trends/index.html>"]

Figure 3.2.1 Screen shot from Hausfather *et al.* (2019) Figure S4 [HYPERLINK "<https://doi.org/10.1029/2019GL085378>"]

Figure 3.2.2 Author created figure. Data source: Freidlingstein *et al.* (2024) [HYPERLINK "<https://essd.copernicus.org/preprints/essd-2024-519>"]
Data source: [HYPERLINK "<https://globalcarbonbudget.org/download/1442/>"]

Figure 3.2.3 Author-created using OLS trends, Data source: [HYPERLINK "<https://globalcarbonbudget.org/download/1442/>"]

Figure 3.2.4 Author-created using OLS trends, Data source: [HYPERLINK "<https://globalcarbonbudget.org/download/1442/>"]

Figure 4.1 Screen shot from Scafetta (2021) Figure 1 [HYPERLINK "<https://doi.org/10.3390/cli9110161>"]

Figure 5.1 Data source: [HYPERLINK "<https://climexp.knmi.nl/start.cgi>"]. Author-created figure. One ensemble member per model, yearly average temperatures are computed from the global monthly raw temperatures; 'range' is the warmest model temperature minus the coolest model temperature in each year; standard deviation computed across all 33 models' raw temperatures in each year.

Figure 5.2 Screen shot from Scafetta (2023) Figure 2 [HYPERLINK "<https://doi.org/10.1007/s00382-022-06493-w>"]

Figure 5.3 Author created figure. Data source: [HYPERLINK "<https://climexp.knmi.nl/start.cgi>"]. One SSP370 ensemble member per model. Linear OLS trends computed from global monthly temperature anomalies relative to 1981-2010.

Figure 5.4 Author created figure, based on Figure 3 of McKittrick and Christy (2020) [HYPERLINK "<https://doi.org/10.1029/2020EA001281>"]. Updated using same methods and data extended from 2014 to 2024, see McKittrick and Christy (2025) in chapter references.

Figure 5.6 Screen shot of IPCC AR5 Figure 10.SM1, with author annotations

Figure 5.7 Author created figure following Christy and McNider (2017) [HYPERLINK "<https://doi.org/10.1007/s13143-017-0070-z>"] with updated data available at [HYPERLINK "https://www.nsstc.uah.edu/data/cmip6/ERA5_REANALYSES/"] and [HYPERLINK "https://www.nsstc.uah.edu/data/cmip6/JRA3Q_REANALYSES/"] compiled here [HYPERLINK "https://www.nsstc.uah.edu/data/cmip6/CWG25_Fig_5.7_Table_250627.xlsx"]

Figure 5.8 Screen shot from [HYPERLINK "https://climate.rutgers.edu/snowcover/chart_seasonal.php?ui_set=nhand&ui_season=1"] (accessed May 27, 2025)

Figure 5.9 Screen shot from Rugenstein and Hakuba (2023) Figure 1 [HYPERLINK "<https://doi.org/10.1029/2022GL101802>"]

Figure 5.10 Author created figure. Data source: Data source: [HYPERLINK "<https://climexp.knmi.nl/start.cgi>"]. OLS linear trends. One SSP370 ensemble member per model, averaged surface air temperatures for June through August over 31N to 49N latitude, 84W to 102W longitude. Observed temperature data for same months from NOAA/NCEI at <https://www.ncei.noaa.gov/access/monitoring/climate-at-a-glance/statewide/time-series> for the 12 Corn Belt states averaged together.

Figure 6.1.1 Author replot of Figure 10 from Koutsoyiannis (2013) [HYPERLINK "<http://dx.doi.org/10.1080/02626667.2013.804626>"]

Figure 6.2.1 Screen shot of figure from Maue (2025) [HYPERLINK "<https://climatlas.com/tropical/>"]

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Figure 6.2.3 Author created figure. Data from NOAA HRD [HYPERLINK "https://www.aoml.noaa.gov/hrd/hurdat/All_U.S._Hurricanes.html" \t "_new"]

Table 6.2.1 Author created table. Data from NOAA HRD [HYPERLINK "https://www.aoml.noaa.gov/hrd/hurdat/most_intense.html" \t "_new"]

Figure 6.3.1 Screen shot from NCA4 Figure 6.4

Figure 6.3.2 Author created figure. Data source: [HYPERLINK "https://www.nsstc.uah.edu/data/ushcn_jrc/"]

Figure 6.3.3 Author created figure. Data source: [HYPERLINK "https://www.nsstc.uah.edu/data/ushcn_jrc/"]

Figure 6.3.4 Author created figure. Data source: [HYPERLINK "https://www.nsstc.uah.edu/data/ushcn_jrc/"]

Figure 6.3.5 Author created figure Data source: [HYPERLINK "https://www.nsstc.uah.edu/data/ushcn_jrc/"]

Figure 6.3.6 Author created figure. Data source: [HYPERLINK "https://www.nsstc.uah.edu/data/ushcn_jrc/"]

Figure 6.3.7 Screen shot from [HYPERLINK "<https://www.globalchange.gov/indicators/heat-waves>"]

Box tables. Author created table. Data from McKittrick and Christy (2025)

Figure 6.4.1 Author created figure. Data from McKittrick and Christy (2025)

Figure 6.4.2 Author created figure. Data from McKittrick and Christy (2025)

Figure 6.4.3 Author created figure. Data from McKittrick and Christy (2025)

Figure 6.4.4 Author created figure. Data from McKittrick and Christy (2025)

Figure 6.4.5 Author created figure. Data from McKittrick and Christy (2025)

Figure 6.5.1 Author created figure. Data source: [HYPERLINK "https://www.spc.noaa.gov/wcm/data/1950-2024_actual_tornadoes.csv"]

Figure 6.7.1 Author created figure. Data source: [HYPERLINK "<https://www.ncei.noaa.gov/access/monitoring/uspa/wet-dry/0>"] accessed June 16, 2025. OLS trend line added.

Figure 6.8.1 Screen shot from Lizundia-Loiola *et al.* (2021) Figure 12.

Figure 6.8.2 Screenshot from Marlon *et al.* (2012) Figure 2 panel C. [HYPERLINK "<https://www.pnas.org/doi/pdf/10.1073/pnas.1112839109>"]

Figure 6.8.3 Author created Figure. Data 1926 to 2016: [HYPERLINK "https://web.archive.org/web/20200212033452/https://www.nifc.gov/fireInfo/fireInfo_stats_totalFires.html"]. Post-2017 [HYPERLINK "<https://www.nifc.gov/fire-information/statistics/wildfires>"] Accessed June 16, 2025.

Figure 7.1 Screenshot from [HYPERLINK "<https://tidesandcurrents.noaa.gov/sltrends/>"]

Table 7.1 Author created table. From Section 6.2 of [HYPERLINK "<https://judithcurry.com/wp-content/uploads/2018/11/special-report-sea-level-rise-3.pdf>"]

Figure 7.2 Screenshot from [HYPERLINK "https://tidesandcurrents.noaa.gov/sltrends/sltrends_station.shtml?id=9414290"] (downloaded 4/22/25)

Figure 7.3 Screenshot from

[HYPERLINK "https://tidesandcurrents.noaa.gov/sltrends/sltrends_station.shtml?id=8771450"]
(downloaded 4/22/2025)

Figure 7.4 Screenshot from

[HYPERLINK "https://tidesandcurrents.noaa.gov/sltrends/sltrends_station.shtml?id=8761724"]
(downloaded 4/22/25)

Figure 7.5 Screenshot from

[HYPERLINK "https://tidesandcurrents.noaa.gov/sltrends/sltrends_station.shtml?id=8518750"]
(downloaded 4/22/25)

Figure 7.6 Author created figure. Data from [HYPERLINK

"https://tidesandcurrents.noaa.gov/sltrends/sltrends_station.shtml?id=8518750"]

Figure 8.1 Screenshot from

[HYPERLINK "<https://crudata.uea.ac.uk/cru/data/temperature/HadCRUT5.0Analysis.pdf>"]

Figure 8.2 Screenshot from Hansen and Karecha (2025) Figure 1

[HYPERLINK "<https://www.columbia.edu/~jeh1/mailings/2025/CloudFeedback.13May2025.pdf>"]

Table 8.1 Screenshot of column 1 of Table 12.12 IPCC AR6 Working Group I report

Figure 9.1 Screenshot From Taylor and Schlenker (2021) Figure 1

[HYPERLINK "<https://www.nber.org/papers/w29320>"]

Figure 9.2 Screenshot from McKittrick (2025) Figure 1

[HYPERLINK "<https://www.nature.com/articles/s41598-025-90254-2>"]

Figure 10.1 Screenshot from Pielke (2024) [HYPERLINK "<https://www.nature.com/articles/s44304-024-00011-0>"] Figure 3.

Figure 10.2 Screenshot from Gasparini *et al.* (2015) Figure 2

[HYPERLINK "[http://dx.doi.org/10.1016/S0140-6736\(14\)62114-0](http://dx.doi.org/10.1016/S0140-6736(14)62114-0)"]

Figure 11.1 Screen shot from Pielke Jr (2023)

[HYPERLINK "<https://rogerpielkejr.substack.com/p/global-disaster-losses1990-2023>"]

Figure 11.2 Screenshot from CEA-OMB (2023) [HYPERLINK

"<https://bidenwhitehouse.archives.gov/wp-content/uploads/2023/03/CEA-OMB-White-Paper.pdf>"]
Figure 1.

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Ross McKittrick, Ph.D., is a Professor of Environmental Economics at the University of Guelph in Ontario, Canada. He holds a BA in economics from Queen's University, and an MA and Ph.D. in economics from the University of British Columbia. He has published widely in both economics and physical science journals on topics related to climate change, pollution and public policy. His book *Economic Analysis of Environmental Policy* was published by the University of Toronto Press in 2010. His background in applied statistics has led him to author or coauthor peer-reviewed publications across a wide range of topics in the physical sciences including paleoclimate reconstruction, malaria transmission, surface temperature measurement, climate attribution methodology and climate model evaluation. Professor McKittrick has made many invited academic presentations around the world, was an invited contributor to the 2006

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